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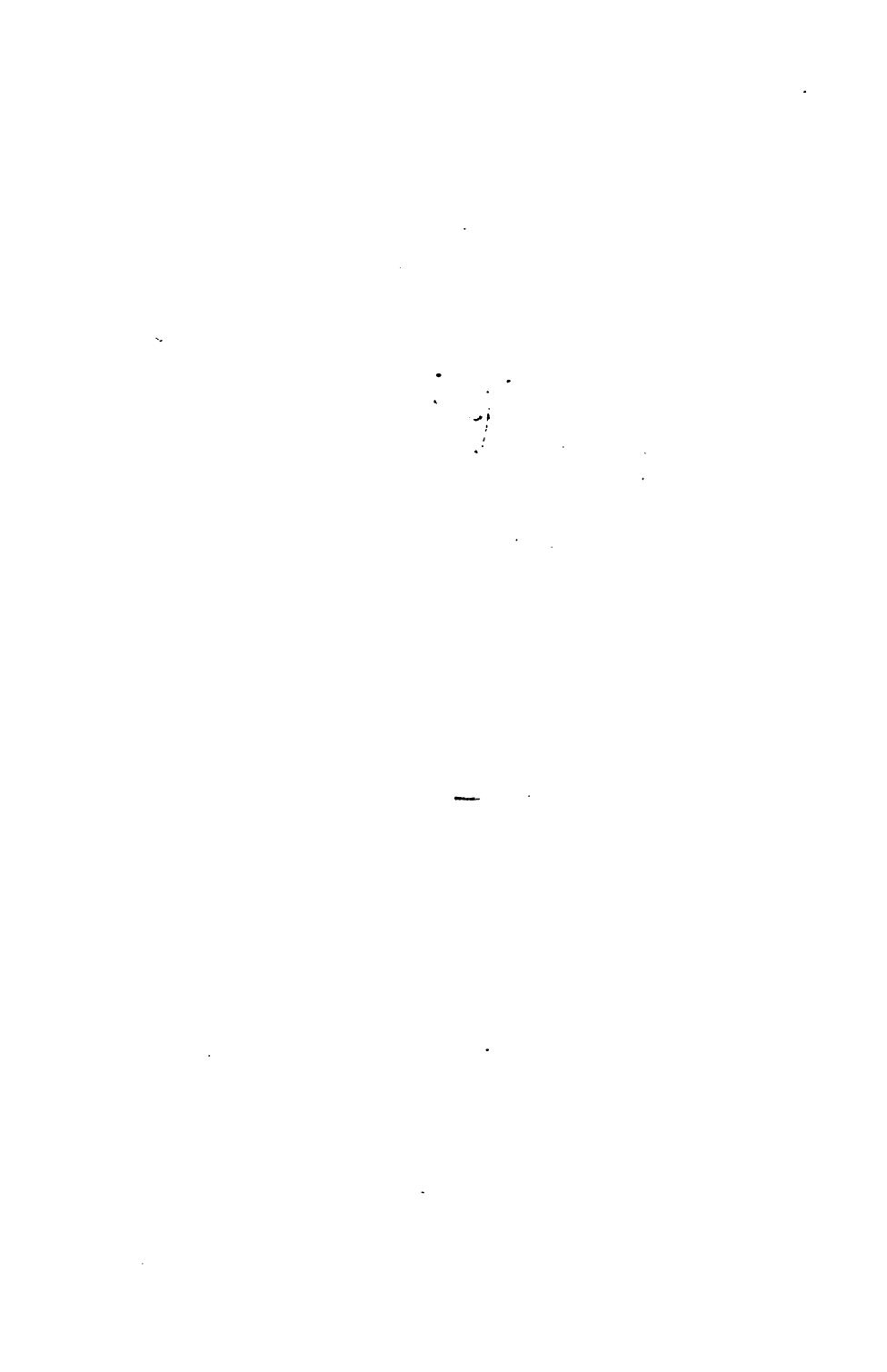




ELEMENTARY EDUCATION  
IN FRANCE.

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1891.



# ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

BY

THOMAS HENRY TEEGAN

*Professor of Mathematics, Board of National Education, Dublin.*

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## ERRATA.

### Page

- xii, lines 26-7, for *Ecoles Primaire Élémentaire* read *Ecoles Primaires Élémentaires*.
- xiii, line 6, for *Ecoles Primaires Supérieurs* read *Ecoles Primaires Supérieures*.
- 20, line 20, for *d's* read *des*.
- 23, „ 24, „ *supérieure* read *supérieur*.
- 43, „ 8, „ *Court de Cassation* read *Cour de Cassation*.
- 44, „ 18, „ *Imperial* read *Impérial*.
- 45, „ 2 (note), for *leus* read *leur*, and for *ou* in next line read *où*.
- 54, „ 22, for *stagiares* read *stagiaires*.
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- 84, „ 1 (note), for *intercésants* read *intéressants*.
- 87, „ 4, for *professionales* read *professionnelles*.
- 120, „ 24, „ who read whom.
- 122, „ 20, „ *group* read *groupe*.
- 139, „ 14, „ *pedagogique* read *pédagogique*.
- 187, „ 2 (note), for *n'yant* read *n'ayant*.
- 188, „ 14, for *Bachelier* read *Bachelier*, and for *supérieure* read *supérieur*.
- 193, „ 6, „ *pedagogy* read *pédagogie*.
- „ „ 7, „ *historie* read *histoire*.
- „ „ 11, „ *instittieur* read *instituteur*.
- 211, „ 1 (note), for *enseignement* read *enseignement*.
- 226, in M.A. column, for *tricoteuse* read *tricoteuses*.
- 228, „ „ „ *marchand* read *marchande*.

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To

**My Colleagues,**

PROFESSOR CORBETT, LL.D.,

PROFESSOR JOYCE, LL.D.,

PROFESSOR DOHERTY, LL.D.,

**This work is Dedicated**

AS AN EXPRESSION OF RESPECT AND ESTEEM BY

THE AUTHOR.





## PREFACE.

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FOR several years I have observed a very progressive spirit at work in the schools of France. It was, however, during the Paris Exhibition of 1889, and the International Congress of Primary Education, which was opened on the 10th of August of that year, at the Sorbonne, by the Minister of Public Instruction, that I fully realised the great activity which prevailed in the French Educational Department. That activity and its results, as illustrated in the Educational Section of the Exhibition, won the warm admiration of the delegates sent to the Congress, on the invitation of the French Government, by the principal States of the old and the new world, including England and Germany.

One of the delegates from Germany has since invited the serious attention of his countrymen to some striking features of the French primary system, and has exhorted them to cast aside National prejudices and look across the Rhine to the remarkable progress, in recent years, of primary education in France.

Satisfied that a study of that system might be attended with advantage, I then conceived the idea of giving an account to the English reader of the state of popular education in France.

Having obtained a general *autorisation* from the Minister of Public Instruction, I have, for some years, paid annual visits to the schools and colleges in various parts of that country, and endeavoured to the best of my ability to form a clear idea of the French system, of the means adopted to render its work effectual, and of the result, as displayed in the efficiency

of the primary educational institutions and their influence on the French people.

The question of secularising the public schools is not one with which we are concerned in these countries; it practically has no existence in connection with our primary systems. The laws, therefore, dealing with the question in France, and their bearing on the schools, have been passed over with only a brief notice.

I have much pleasure in gratefully acknowledging the uniform courtesy and kindness with which I have been treated by the French educational authorities. I am particularly indebted to M. Platrier, Director of the Normal College of Versailles, who gave me every opportunity to grasp the character and scope of the instruction imparted to the young teachers in that institution; to M. Biétreix, Primary Inspector of the 8th and 16th *arrondissements* of Paris; and to my esteemed friends,

M. le Professeur Guillaume, of the Chaptal College, Paris, and M. Friteau, formerly of the *Faculté de Paris*, Professor of Modern Languages. Among friends at home, I have also to thank my colleague, Dr. Joyce, for much valuable assistance.

In now submitting this work, in which I have endeavoured to give an unprejudiced account of the system of popular education in another country, I shall be fully recompensed for my labours if thereby I shall contribute in some small measure to promote the interests of popular instruction in my own.

V. T. H. T.

DUBLIN,  
15th September, 1891.



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# ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

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## CHAPTER I.

THE PERIOD OF THE REVOLUTION—STATE OF POPULAR  
INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE IN 1789.

THE first efforts at founding a system of popular instruction in France were made in the stormy days of the Revolution. The idea had already been embodied in various decrees with little effect, notably in one by the States General at Orleans, in 1560, which demanded a system of free and compulsory education for the people; and later, in a report presented to Louis XVI. by his minister, Turgot, who represented that he could propose nothing better calculated to promote the interests of the king's subjects and of the State than a scheme of popular education. Even under a monarch more able than Louis XVI. it would have been, at that time, difficult to construct anything like a system of popular instruction. The plans of Turgot were soon laid aside with the

Minister himself, and nothing was done in the way of educational reform until 1789. There were indeed a number of small schools scattered over the country, but there was no definite organization of popular education. No legislation existed on the subject, except a confused collection of royal decrees, ordinances, university regulations, and episcopal mandates. These decrees and ordinances had little effect in promoting education, and failed to organize the means of supporting schools. The State did not trouble itself with the question, and the religious societies alone took any practical steps for the spread and advancement of education. On the assembly of the States General in 1789, no less than twenty different religious bodies were engaged in teaching the poor all over France. One religious community deserves special mention, "*L'Institut des Frères des Ecoles Chrésiennes*." "The Religious Society," says Matthew Arnold, "which has prosecuted this work most effectually, which has most merited gratitude by its labours for the education of the poor, and which at the present day most claims attention from its numbers and from its influence, is undoubtedly the Society of the Brethren of the Christian Schools." These words were written twenty years ago, during the Third Empire, and sound somewhat strange now, when these bodies are on the point of disappearing from the public

schools of France. The Brothers were expelled by the Revolution, restored by Napoleon I., and excluded again from the primary public schools under the Republic by the law of 1886. They will have disappeared from 1892. The work of these religious bodies was, however, restricted to the towns and cities. Owing to the nature of the regulations which governed their Order, the Brethren of the Christian Schools were unable to spread themselves through the rural districts. The rural population were almost entirely neglected, and up to the year of the Revolution no serious efforts to provide the means of education for the poor had been made by the State.

#### The States-General.

The States-General, in 1789, contemplated a vast scheme of educational reform. An article of the First Constitution of 1791 demanded a system of popular instruction, common and free to everyone in regard to the amount of tuition indispensable to all men. The *Comité de Constitution*, nominated by the Constituent Assembly, 1789, to 30th September, 1791, drew up a scheme of National Education. It was framed by, and known as, the system of Talleyrand, and was read to the Assembly a few days before dissolution. It comprised the founding of free primary schools, departmental schools, and a National



Institute; this last being at once a school of higher studies and a society of learned men. The Assembly, however, separated without carrying the scheme into law.

Condorcet.

The Legislative Assembly succeeded the Constituent Assembly. It existed from the 1st October, 1791, to the 21st September, 1792. The plan of Talleyrand was laid aside, and Condorcet presented a scheme to the Assembly on the 20th April, unfolding a grand plan of National Education. This was the ablest and most comprehensive scheme formulated up to that time by any individual, and may at the present day be read with much interest and advantage. Education was to be free; there was to be a primary school for every 400 inhabitants, and a superior primary school for every town with 4000 inhabitants and upwards. Condorcet drew up a programme of studies which is not far different from those which hold in the French schools at the present day, and he defined the instruction to be imparted to each individual, as that which was necessary for the individual's own conduct and guidance, and for the full enjoyment of his rights and privileges. The Legislative Assembly had not time to carry the project into law before it was absorbed in the National Convention.

## The National Convention: Chaos and Oratory.

The Convention began by adopting the first article of a project of law relative to primary schools and teachers, and a decree presented by the Committee of Public Safety on the 30th May, 1793. Then followed a blaze of patriotic educational eloquence on the projects of Sieyès and Daunou, presented by Lakanal on the 26th June, 1793, on that of Lepelletier presented by Robespierre on the 13th July, and on that of Romme on the 20th and 21st October. This all ended as it began, in a storm of oratory, with no practical result. Patriotic and eloquent speeches there were in abundance, which, however, do not make teachers; but if the constructive genius was wanting in the Convention, the destructive was displayed in great vigour. While the legislators were airing their eloquence on schemes of educational reform, they were clearing the ground of the old edifices whereon to erect the new; but the new never came. The old educational institutions were nearly all destroyed during the Reign of Terror. Early in 1793 all the endowed seats of learning were confiscated, and on the 15th September of the same year, all existing colleges and faculties were abolished, and with them the University of Paris, founded in the 12th century, and long the most famous seat of learning in Europe. Next year Fourcroy declared



in the Convention that France was rapidly relapsing into barbarism.

Liberty of Instruction during the Reign of Terror.

The idea of a great National System of Public Instruction, as embodied in the scheme of Condorcet, was naturally abandoned after the fall of the Girondins, on the 31st May, 1793. A Commission was nominated by the Committee of Public Safety to draw up a plan of education. This was presented to the Convention, and known as the scheme of Bouquier. The fundamental principle of this scheme was that secondary and higher education would not concern the State, that it should be left to private individuals, and that the State should not interfere further in secondary and higher educational institutions, than in voting subventions to a few special schools. The maintenance of primary schools, it was held, devolved on the State only to the extent of paying the teachers proportionate to the number of their scholars, namely, 20 livres per pupil for men, and 12 for women. Freedom of instruction was established, and any citizen was at liberty to open a school. This was known as the Jacobin law. It was adopted by the Convention on the 29th of Frimaire, Year II. (19th December, 1793), and continued in force till the 9th Thermidor and the fall of Robespierre. After the Reign of Terror came again destruction and construc-

tion in the educational edifice. On the initiative of Lakanal, a project was adopted by the Convention, providing for the re-organization of elementary schools. The teachers were made public officials, and their salaries fixed at 1,200 livres for men, and 1,000 for women. It decreed also Central Schools as a second degree of education, and Normal Colleges, a provision never carried into execution except in Paris, where the college broke down in a few months. This law was adopted on the 27th Brumaire, Year III. (17th November, 1794). We have in this programme a striking proof of the unstable and unpractical character of the legislation of the Convention, for with the exception of the Republican Moral Code, of which there was no lack of teachers, there were few teachers available for giving instruction in the subjects of the programme. To complete this pretentious legislation, it was ordained that a jury of three should be formed in each district to examine, elect, and watch over the teachers. Had the juries been entrusted with the task of instructing and training them they might have succeeded in infusing some practical element into this visionary scheme. It was, moreover, soon discovered that the expenditure in connection with these regulations was too heavy a charge on the slender resources of the State, embarrassed as it then was by the general confusion and tumult, as well as

by the vast military establishments for the protection of the French frontiers. It was, therefore, resolved by a decree of the 3rd Brumaire, Year IV., to discontinue salaries to the teachers, and provide them with lodging only. Fees were to be in future paid by the pupils of elementary schools, contrary to the principle already sanctioned. The programmes were at the same time confined to the modest limits suited to the condition of affairs then in force in France—Reading, Writing, Simple Calculations, and Republican Moral Instruction—which had now become the “amount of tuition indispensable to all men.”

The revolutionary attempts at building up a system of popular instruction were, from both a legislative and an educational standpoint, eminently defective. The Convention at this time, under the provisions of the decree of the 27th Brumaire, aimed at great results in the matter of elementary education, but it seems to have acted on a gross misconception of the means available for effecting the desired end. In other words, in the process of construction, it seems to have assumed that the materials were at hand, and required only examination and classification, whereas the materials for carrying the scheme into effect were totally inadequate. The programme for primary schools, as set forth in the second article of this decree, comprised:—

- (1.) Reading and writing, and passages of reading



which would recall to the minds of the pupils their rights and duties.

(2.) The Declaration of the Rights of Man, and the Constitution of the French Republic.

(3.) Elementary notions of republican moral instruction.

(4.) The elements of the French language, both oral and written.

(5.) The rules of simple calculations and land survey.

(6.) Geography, and the history of free peoples.

(7.) The principal phenomena and the newest productions of Nature.

(8.) To learn a collection of heroic deeds and songs of triumph.

The Revolution had, it will thus be seen, notwithstanding much that has been said to the contrary, effected practically nothing for popular education, when on the day following the passing of the decree of the 3rd Brumaire, the National Convention was dissolved, the 26th October, 1795. No doubt it had set the ideas of a system of popular instruction afloat, but only ideas. The Institutions of Higher and Secondary Education were entirely ruined. The Assemblies commenced with high-sounding schemes for primary instruction, and ended with the miserable scheme of Daunou. The institutions which educated the higher and middle classes were no more. Those

which, under the auspices of the Religious bodies, were gratuitously instructing the poor in the towns and cities, disappeared with these bodies themselves; and in compensation for this work of destruction, the Communes were required by the Law of the 25th October, 1795, to provide each a primary school, while no provision was made to instruct, train, or pay the teachers, who were now to subsist on such fees as they should receive from their pupils. It can be readily conceived that the provisions of this law were practically inoperative. It remained in force during the Directory. Education was naturally neglected by this body, burthened as it was with the expenditure of heavy wars, and when General Bonaparte overthrew the Directorate, and assumed the chief power as First Consul, the state of education in France was infinitely worse than it had been at the outbreak of the Revolution.



## CHAPTER II.

### THE CONSULATE AND EMPIRE.

WHEN General Bonaparte had reduced into order the chaotic confusion into which the affairs of the nation had fallen, he betook himself to devise a scheme for educating the French people—to found, as he said himself, “a new society, free alike from the injustice of feudalism, and the confusion of anarchy.” The First Consul had conceived a violent aversion to the extreme Revolutionists. The latter had framed their scheme on the principle that the State ought to maintain the establishments of primary education only, and that those of secondary education should be left to private individuals. The First Consul held a directly opposite opinion. The law, promulgated on the 1st May, 1802, is one of the grandest memorials of the Consular government. It established a system of Communal Colleges, Lycees, &c., in every department, endowed and maintained by the State. The programmes were modelled on a sound and intelligent plan; classical studies, which were abolished from the Central Schools by the Revolution, were restored to these

establishments, which were now formed into thirty-two Lycees; and in order to attract students to the new institutions, they were endowed with no less than 6,400 scholarships. A new intellectual life sprang up under the influence of this great educational machinery, which received a new impetus by the foundation of the Imperial University. The sons of the adherents of the old Monarchy, of those who dreaded the Revolution and accepted the Government of Napoleon, only because it was strong and an effective guarantee against anarchy, and the sons of the new element, the adherents and supporters of the Consular government, were brought together in these institutions, where they received a sound and liberal education.

While such ample provision was made for secondary education, primary education was left to the care of the Communes. The supreme control in the latter was entrusted to the newly-appointed departmental executive—the prefects and sub-prefects. The programmes consisted merely of reading, writing, and calculations. Napoleon saw clearly that it would be impossible to establish at once a pretentious scheme of elementary education, amongst a non-educated people. The elements of reading, writing, and simple calculations he deemed sufficient for the school generation of the time. A more liberal scheme could be prepared for those who were to



follow. The resources of the State were, moreover, unable to bear the strain of a vast scheme for the three degrees of instruction. The estate on which his power rested was the middle class, or *Bourgeois*. It was from this that officials were to be drawn to administer the affairs of the nation. The education of these classes was therefore the most pressing; and hence the vast scheme of secondary education, the forerunner of the University.

The Imperial University of France.

Napoleon followed up the Consular law by founding the Imperial University in 1806, a body with exclusive charge of tuition and public education in the Empire. It was organised in 1808. It consisted of a Grand Master and Council in Paris, and twenty-six Academies, comprising the entire of France, with Rectors, Inspectors-General, &c. It held sway over the entire educational machinery of the Empire; no school or educational establishment of any kind whatever could be formed outside the pale of the University, and without the sanction of its Grand Master. The moral instruction of the Revolution was abolished, and it was ordained that all the schools of the Imperial University should take as the basis of their instruction—" (1) the precepts of religion, and (2) fidelity to the Emperor, to the Imperial Monarchy—the depository of the happiness



backward state of his colleagues in the work of primary instruction, and the inefficiency of that instruction in rural districts.

State of Primary Instruction towards the Fall of  
the Empire.

In 1809 Inspectors-General were despatched all over France to report on the state of primary education. The reports presented by these functionaries show that the primary schools were in a deplorable condition. The absence of the religious communities was everywhere regretted ; competent teachers could not be had ; the wars and attendant conscriptions had produced their effect on the peasantry. The Communes, absorbed in anxieties attendant on the campaigns and conscriptions, neglected the affair of education. The Grand Master of the University laboured hard to infuse some life and spirit into the primary schools, but without success. He was ready to offer money for founding schools, but the Municipalities were not ready to turn their thoughts in that direction. The Emperor issued decrees, but the great military movement engaged too much of his attention and that, of the Empire to see them executed. Finally, the great events from 1812 to 1814 absorbed all the energies of France, and the primary schools were neglected and fell away.

When the Emperor returned from Elba, in accordance with the report of Carnot, he issued a decree for establishing a model school, but with his final fall, which followed soon, the project vanished.



## CHAPTER III.

### THE RESTORATION.

ON the accession of Louis XVIII. to the throne of France, the primary schools were once more designated "poor schools," and placed under a committee of charity as before the Revolution. Their functions were defined by Royal Ordinances, one of which, in 1816, prescribed certificates of capacity for elementary teachers in France. These were of three classes. The lowest certificate, that of the third degree, was awarded to those who had a sufficient knowledge of reading, writing, and figures, to enable them to give lessons in these subjects; the second to those who, in addition, had some knowledge of orthography, caligraphy, and calculations; and the first to those who understood French grammar, geography, land surveying, and other branches of knowledge useful in primary instruction. The certificate was awarded by the Rector after examination by the Academy Inspector, or other functionary of public instruction. Specific instructions were issued from the Ministry to guide the examiners as to the extent of knowledge which was expected in

the various subjects in order to qualify for the certificates under the provisions of the Ordinance. These instructions in regard to geography were such as might be followed with advantage at the present day. Candidates for the first class were expected to know the political divisions of the earth, with the various peoples, and the natural productions, especially those of Europe, to possess an intimate knowledge of the different kinds of cultivation followed in the departments, of the industries peculiar to each, &c.\*

Each Commune was compelled to provide the means of education for the children residing therein, and this was to be free for the poor. For the first time a vote appeared in the budget of the State in favour of primary instruction. A fund of 50,000 francs was to be annually voted and employed in the composition and printing of books suitable for elementary education, to establish temporary model schools in the districts where good methods were not followed,

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\*L'Instituteur de première classe devra répondre sur les peuples et les empires qui se partagent la terre, leurs productions naturelles et leurs industries (de l'Europe surtout); quant à la France, les genres de culture, qui sont en usage dans les différents départements, les professions ou les fabriques qui prospèrent, il devra rapporter à chaque localité les événements remarquables qui s'y rattachent, il rappellera surtout ceux des événements qui sont honorables pour nos rois ou pour la nation et qui pourront développer dans le cœur des élèves, l'amour du souverain et de la patrie.—Instruction Ministérielle, 1816.



and to reward teachers who should display special ability in the method of teaching.

#### Policy of Charles X.

All that was good for the time, and a decided progressive spirit was thus inaugurated in the matter of elementary education. Two years later the Cantonal Committees were invited by the Commission of Public Instruction to see to the execution of the Royal Ordinance of 1816, and to take steps to provide that the teachers in their various districts should provide themselves with one or other of the above certificates. This regulation was to be imposed on the teaching members of religious congregations as well as on the lay teachers. The innovation called forth strong opposition. No alteration, however, was obtained during the reign of Louis XVIII., but a few years after the accession of Charles X., that monarch issued an Ordinance abrogating nearly all the measures of the preceding reign. Among other provisions the "Frères des Ecoles Chrésiennes" were exempted from the examination for the certificates. The Government of this monarch had, however, scarcely commenced when it began to decline. The French people had recovered from the effects of the harassing wars which led to the fall of the Empire. Peace came with the Restoration, and men who had suffered so much from long wars were for a while ready to

yield to many pretensions of the Monarchy in return for the peace which they so much desired. But as years rolled on, the evil results of the prolonged wars gradually disappeared, and on the death of Louis XVIII. were almost forgotten; only the glory won in so many brilliant battles, gratifying to the national sentiment, was remembered, and to this Charles X. could lay no claim. He ascended the throne as men's minds were recovering from the profound lethargy consequent on the great storms of the Revolution and the falling Empire, and began to lay strong claims to prerogatives and pretensions of divine right, long considered inconsistent with the rights and privileges of the nation. The Educational Ordinance of 1828, conceived in much the same spirit, was a distinctly retrograde measure, and retarded the advance of primary instruction. A profound depression settled on the elementary institutions, but higher education was fostered and encouraged, as existing for the classes on which the Bourbon dynasty rested its security. Owing to the reactionary policy of Charles X., the period of the Restoration is generally considered by French writers as barren of results in the domain of popular instruction.



## CHAPTER IV.

### THE MONARCHY OF JULY.

A CHANGE was, however, approaching. The Revolution of 1830 called the House of Orléans to the throne, and with it came the first great Charter of Elementary Education in France. The Government of Louis Philippe commenced by reversing the Ordinances of 1828, and re-establishing those of Louis XVIII., by which all teachers were required to provide themselves with certificates. Popular opinion strongly favoured this course.

#### Guizot, Minister of Education.

The law of Guizot, passed in 1833, not only established popular instruction on a basis which political vicissitudes were not able entirely to destroy, but also animated it with a spirit calculated to make it an effective means of elevating the masses in the mental scale. This law established two degrees of primary instruction—*primaire élémentaire* and *primaire supérieure*. Every Commune, either by itself or in conjunction with one or more others, was bound to provide at least one elementary school.

The chief Commune, in the department, and those communes whose population exceeded 6,000, were, in addition, required to maintain a superior elementary school, and each department of itself, or in conjunction with others, to maintain a Normal College. A curious feature of this legislation is the absence of any provision for the foundation of girls' schools. They were not even mentioned in the provisions of the measure as it passed into law. It is worth noting that M. Guizot, whose wife was a lady of culture and literary tastes, proposed to provide every Commune with a boys' and a girls' school. Great pressure, it was stated, was brought to bear on the queen, a princess of the House of Navarre, and she was induced to offer a strenuous objection to the measure. The provision for girls' schools was therefore abandoned. Three years later, however, girls were admitted for the examination for certificates on a somewhat altered programme.

The *primaire élémentaire* was deemed indispensable to all. It included religious and moral instruction, reading, writing, calculations, the legal system of weights and measures, and the elements of the French language. The *primaire supérieure* included, in addition, geometry and drawing, surveying, physical science, natural history, singing, history, and geography. This division of primary education demanded a corresponding division of teachers in



regard to their qualifications, and accordingly two certificates were established—one, the elementary certificate (*Brevet Élémentaire*), for the teachers in the elementary primary schools; and the other, the superior certificate (*Brevet Supérieur*), for the teachers of the superior primary schools. These certificates were awarded after examination, before a commission, three members of which, at least, should belong to primary education. These commissions were under the direct control of the Minister, and held their examinations twice yearly, in March and September. The programme included religious knowledge and sacred history, reading in French and Latin, writing, spelling, French language, grammar, and analysis; arithmetic, geography, history, and the method of teaching reading and writing; and in addition, for the superior certificate, more advanced arithmetic, drawing, physical and natural sciences, geography, history, music, and the method of simultaneous instruction. This was supplemented in 1836 by composition and an oral examination in one of the subjects of the programme. The certificates were obligatory for all in the case of the superior primary schools; but female teachers, members of religious bodies, were exempted from the examination; they obtained the certificate on the presentation of their letter of obedience. Many of these, however, elected to present them-

selves for the examination, and out of 8,492 such teachers in France in 1850, 1,256 had won the certificates by examination.

The position of the teachers was very accurately defined by this law. Their social position was vastly elevated under its influence. The Minister, in a celebrated letter, compared the office of teacher to that of minister of religion—*both exercising a common influence on youth*. The teacher was to be supplied with a residence, and a fixed salary of not less than 200 francs, independent of school contributions; and until he should become a public official, and thus become entitled to a pension from the State, provision was made for establishing a pension fund by annual deductions from his salary. The teachers were appointed by a District Committee, and a Municipal Council was at liberty to order a Competitive Examination. The final confirmation rested with the Minister of Public Instruction. Under these regulations the education of the masses made rapid advances, until the Revolution of 1848 involved the State again in confusion. The law of 1850 was mainly retrograde; the programmes, which were framed by Guizot on a footing not very different from those in use in France at the present time, were reduced and formed into obligatory and optional sections, with the result that the latter were seldom taught. The certificate of capacity

was no longer indispensable for the teacher ; and the Training Colleges, which the Powers distrusted, might be dispensed with by the Councils-General or by the Minister. *Salles d'Asile*—infant schools—were, however, founded, and special girls' schools were, for the first time, established. From this dates the rise of primary education for girls in France.\*

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\* Toute Commune de 800 âmes et au-dessus est tenue si ses propres ressources lui en fournissent les moyens d'avoir au moins une école de filles.



## CHAPTER V.

### THE THIRD EMPIRE.

IN the early years of the Third Empire, further repressive measures were enacted. The Government took steps to concentrate authority, the departmental academies were suppressed, and primary education was placed under the control of the Prefects, who henceforth nominated the teachers. Primary education fell into a lethargic state under the Imperial *regime*. The machinery which existed for the training of teachers was reduced to impotence, many normal colleges were even entirely closed, and the qualification tests were absolutely worthless. The progress which was made in education by the Monarchy, and promoted by the law of 1833, had entirely disappeared; new regulations destroyed the spirit of the act, and, as a consequence, the education which was afforded to the masses was lamentably inefficient.

When this repressive policy had produced its evil effects, certain members of the Imperial Cabinet aroused themselves to the necessity of reform. M. Duruy took the foremost part in this movement; the



programmes were restored, and artistic drawing, book-keeping, geometry, and modern languages were added.

In 1867 a still further advance was made. The education of girls was placed on a better footing. All the Communes of 500 inhabitants, with very rare exceptions, were compelled each to maintain a girls' school. The mixed schools were provided with workmistresses, assistants were added, and the history and geography of France was to form in future part of the obligatory programme.

The Minister had recently lost his only daughter. He had in great part conducted her education himself; and the result was a mind cultivated and filled with high and noble ideas. She had become the idol of the Minister, not only from natural ties, but from the unity of their tastes and feelings. M. Duruy, amidst the Court circles, found no one among all the brilliant train to equal the daughter whom he had lost. It was a brilliant, light, gossipy, blaze of fair, uneducated, or, at least, very imperfectly educated humanity; and the great Minister of Education fondly cherished the idea of reforming the education of women. Things were bad in the higher walks of society, where the men in general were well educated under the system of Napoleon, and this, compared with the imperfect education of women, produced an immense mental chasm between

the sexes. From the higher orders the Minister looked to the masses, and here a condition of things was revealed which imperatively called for reformation. The means of education afforded to girls in the rural districts were entirely inadequate. No serious attempt had hitherto been made to provide schools for the instruction of girls. Two circumstances strengthened the Minister's hands in his educational reforms—the advance made by the neighbouring States, as revealed in the Exhibition of 1867, and the writings of Monseigneur Dupanloup, the learned Bishop of Orléans. The French Empress at this time had begun to take a very prominent part in the affairs of the Government, probably with a view to prepare for the Regency, as the Emperor was then in very indifferent health. She went down, accompanied by a brilliant train, to the Agricultural Show of Orléans, and foremost among the notables of the city who received the Empress was the distinguished Bishop. He had adopted a learned and elevated style of conversation, full of epigram and classical allusion, but he found to his surprise that it was entirely beyond the comprehension of the fair assembly. On the departure of the Court, Monseigneur Dupanloup published a series of articles in which he talked at the illiteracy of the ladies of the train. These were by no means pleasant reading for her Majesty, who in consequence readily

lent herself to support the schemes of M. Duruy for establishing a system of education for girls. A vast impetus was at once given to the secondary and higher education of women. From the intrinsic merits of the scheme, and the fierce contests to which it gave rise, in so far that the Minister was half disavowed by his own cabinet, it would form an interesting chapter; but it does not come within the scope of our work. The same activity began to be felt in the field of elementary education. The programmes were improved, and the obligatory course extended. The old certificates and the programmes on which they were granted to teachers were not restored, but methods of teaching were included in the examination. This resuscitation and progress was cut short by the German war.



## CHAPTER VI.

### THE REPUBLIC.

THE disaster of 1870-71 and the fall of the Third Empire changed once more the French Constitution. The Republic was established, and when order was restored, it betook itself to remodelling and reforming the institutions of the State. The victories of the French at Auerstadt and Jena, in 1806, had called the attention of Prussia to the education of her people, and led to an extensive scheme of elementary instruction in that country. The victories of the Prussians at Sedan and at Paris, in 1870-71, led to similar results in the field of elementary education in France. There is no department which, since 1870, has shared so largely in the solicitude of the State as that all-important one of Popular Education. "From the morrow of our misfortunes," said M. Jules Simon, "everyone has understood that our most pressing interest, our most imperious duty, was the re-constitution of public instruction in our country, the development, above all, of primary education." The three fundamental principles of educational legislation under the Re-



public are free, compulsory, and purely secular instruction. The operation of the first two principles has been attended with marked success; but as to the third, it is impossible that education without religion can be attended with any other than evil results; nor—in relation to the State—can we find any other consequence arising from it than a source of danger to the stability of the Republic, a view which has been recently expressed by M. Jules Simon himself.

The laws of the 16th June, 1881, established free education in the elementary schools, and abolished the payments previously required from candidate teachers undergoing training in the normal colleges. Another law referred to the title of capacity or certificate to teach. It enacted that henceforward no one could exercise the function of a teacher, either in a private or a public school, unless provided with the elementary certificate at least. This was merely an application of the regulations already in force with respect to ordinary teachers to the religious communities. Provision was made to prevent its immediate application to persons already engaged in teaching; and anyone above 35 years of age who had already served five years as a teacher was exempted altogether from the provisions of the law; but if such persons were only assistants, they could not become principals except by qualifying for the elementary certificate. In 1882 the instruction was

secularised, and attendance at school was made compulsory. Religious instruction was no longer imparted in the public schools. The programmes for the elementary schools were fixed; modelling, manual instruction, and military exercises were added to those then in use; and the division of the subjects into obligatory and optional was abolished.

The one programme applied to every elementary school in France, and thenceforward there has existed in the schools only different degrees in the application of the same programme. Primary education was made compulsory for both sexes between the ages of six and thirteen, and might be given at either a public or a private school, or at home; provision was made for the due supervision of private schools, and for the examination of children who were taught in their own homes; and a commission was appointed in each Commune to enforce the provisions of the compulsory attendance clauses.

#### Commissions Municipales Scolaires.

Each of these commissions is composed of the Maire of the Commune, President; a cantonal delegate, members nominated by the Municipal Council, and the Primary Inspector, who is, *ex-officio*, a member of all the commissions within his district. The members nominated by the Municipal Council hold office until the election for a new Council, and

are then eligible for re-election. It is this Commission which watches over the application of the law of compulsory attendance, assists the Maire in drawing up the list of children who have arrived at the age for attending school, and decides on the validity of the excuses offered by the parents for the absence of their children from school, and when these excuses are judged insufficient, pronounces certain penalties. The excuses which are admissible are laid down by the law as follows:—Illness, death in the family, absence resulting from the accidental difficulty of communication with the school, and other circumstances deemed sufficient by the Commission. It would seem natural to suppose that under the latter head objections to the books in use or to the methods of instruction in the school would be held as valid reasons for the withholding a child from a particular school; yet such is not the case.

#### The Operation of the Compulsory Law.

The Commission has no power to admit any such excuse as that last mentioned, or to take any cognizance of the character of the work in the schools. The members have not even the right of entry into the school. How any municipal councillor could accept such an anomalous position is incomprehensible to us, whose ideas of the rights and liberties



of the subject are far in advance of those of our French neighbours.\*

The position of the teacher in regard to these clauses is accurately and very judiciously defined. He is not to take the initiative in setting in motion repressive measures to secure attendance. This wise provision prevents the growth of bad feeling between the teachers and the parents. Eight days before the re-opening of the schools after the vacations the *Maire* sends to the principals of public and private schools a list of children who, according to law, are compelled to attend school. A duplicate list is sent to the Primary Inspector. When a child is absent the parents are obliged to inform the teacher of the cause, and this is entered opposite the pupil's name in a book called the School Register. At the end of every month an extract from this register, with the number of absences of each pupil, and the causes assigned, is sent both to the *Maire* and to the Primary Inspector. Here the duties of the teachers cease in regard to the compulsory law.

When a scholar has been absent four times during the month for at least half a day, without justification,

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\* Les membres des commissions scolaires n'ont pas l'entrée des écoles. Ils n'ont aucun droit d'inspection ou de contrôle, ni sur les établissements d'instruction ni sur les maîtres.--Décret du 18 Janvier, 1887.

## Secularisation.

The provisions of the law secularising the schools forbid ministers of religion of all denominations from inspecting or exercising any supervision in the public schools, or imparting therein any religious instruction even outside the school hours. This provision, of course, does not apply to private schools. It is ordained at the same time that the public elementary schools shall be closed one day each week, in addition to Sundays, in order that parents may the more easily have an opportunity of sending their children to receive religious instruction in the churches; and accordingly, Thursday is set apart as a holiday for this purpose. The law of the 30th October, 1886, completed the programme which the public had laid out for itself by secularising the *personnel* of the public schools. Within five years from 1887 all teachers, members of religious bodies, shall have ceased to continue teaching in the public schools. The legislation was completed by the Act of 1889, under the provisions of which the teachers became servants of the State.



## CHAPTER VII.

### THE SUPERIOR COUNCIL—THE UNIVERSITY OF FRANCE.

IN 1806 Napoleon followed up the great scheme of National education, inaugurated in the Consular Law of 1802, by founding the Imperial University of France—a body charged exclusively with instruction and education in the empire. This great corporation was organised in 1808, and was composed of a Grand Master and Council, holding, under the authority of the Emperor, absolute sway over the entire educational machinery of France—colleges, Lycées, primary schools, professors, inspectors, teachers, &c.—all making up what was known as L'Université. The freedom of opening schools conceded during the Reign of Terror was withdrawn. No school or educational establishment could in future exist except under the sanction of the Grand Master of the University, who was and is still the Minister of Public Instruction. The Empire was divided into twenty-seven academies, each governed by a Rector and Council, who wielded the same authority in matters of education within the academy, under



the Grand Master and Council, that the latter did over all France. It is beyond the scope of this work to inquire into the working of the Imperial University of France in regard to its faculties of theology, medicine, law, letters, mathematical and physical sciences. We are concerned mainly with the University in its administration of primary instruction.

Since the days of the Empire the University has undergone many modifications in its constitution, but at the present day the main lines are much the same as established by Napoleon. The Council was composed of thirty members—ten nominated by the Emperor for life, and twenty appointed annually by the Grand Master from the deans, professors of the faculties, and heads of the Lycées, &c. The Council was formed into five sections, for regulating the programmes, the administration of the schools, the accounts, contentious matters, and the seals. It had control of all teaching bodies, the exclusive right of appointment and dismissal, and the selection of books for use in the schools of all grades. The University had its Chancellor, who was the keeper of the archives, awarded the diplomas, and countersigned all the acts of the Grand Master; and a Treasurer, charged with the administration of the receipts and expenses of the various establishments, and of the general administration. The Council,

under the presidency of the Grand Master, sat as a deliberative and administrative assembly, and was the supreme tribunal in all matters of education in the Empire. The new University, it will be observed, retained many features of the old provincial universities that disappeared in the clash of the Revolution. This was a favourite scheme with the Emperor. He loved to adorn his new institutions with the reliefs of the ancient edifices, but in so doing, the needs of the altered conditions of society were not forgotten. The new elements were to combine with, but, at the same time, to predominate over the old ; to form an educational machinery with its motive power centered in the head of the State, the Grand Master and the Council ; to regenerate society, and to mould the youth of France into an educated and cultivated nation.

#### The Council Dissolved.

Scarcely had the House of Bourbon re-ascended the throne when the Imperial University was suppressed. The decree of the 7th February, 1815, replaced it by seven provincial universities, entirely distinct, but under the superintendence of a Royal Council, which was to be composed of eleven members of the University, that is, of the schools and colleges of all grades, two of the clergy, and two of the Council of State. The period known as the Hundred



Days followed, and short as it was, it taught Louis XVIII. a lesson which he should have learnt long before, namely, that for the stability of his throne it was necessary to preserve the institutions of the Empire, or at least to undermine them gradually, without attracting public attention. By a decree of August, 1815, the organization of the University was practically restored, a commission of five taking the place of the Grand Master and Council. The name of Université was in a few years again adopted, and in 1822 the Grand Master and Council were restored under the title of Royal Council, the members of which were nominated for life, and possessed powers inconsistent with the free development of the University. Finally, in 1845, the organization as established by Napoleon was restored, with eight titular and twenty ordinary councillors.

#### Liberty of Education Demanded.

During the closing days of the monarchy of July, the question of liberty of education was debated with great warmth. The monopoly of the university on matters of education was attacked with force and effect by the representatives of the great social interests, and not only its monopoly, but its preponderance. The right of the State to the exclusive control of the public and private establishments was

practically abolished by the Republic of 1848. The Council of the University was remodelled in 1850, and included representatives of the great social interests—four bishops, a clergyman of the Protestant Church, a Jewish minister, a minister of the Confirmation of Augsburg, three members of the Institute, three of the Council of State, and three of the Court de Cassation, all elected by their colleagues. The University was represented by eight members chosen from the rectors and professors of faculties, the Inspectors-General, and three members of the private schools, all nominated by the President of the Republic. The members of the University formed a permanent section and prepared the work and decisions of the Minister. The functions of the Superior Council were clearly defined. It decided on programmes for the examinations and competitions in the public schools, the superintendence of the private schools, on the books to be used, the creation of colleges, faculties, &c., and on the aid to be given to private schools. It was consulted at pleasure by the Minister of Public Instruction on projects of law and decrees. It enjoyed a wide range of authority in public and private instruction, and its decisions were final, without appeal therefrom to the Council of State, as heretofore. Opinions varied widely as to the wisdom of this scheme. According to some, it meant the "consolidation and aggrandise-

ment,"\* but according to others, the "dislocation" of the University.†

The Council thus constituted was not afforded an opportunity of proving its effectiveness in directing the education of France. In 1852, in order to establish order in the teaching bodies, the elections were abolished, and the Council was recruited annually by the nominations of the Chief of the State. The permanent section was superseded by a *Comité Consultatif*, composed of eight Inspectors-General, and the Chief of the Divisions of the Central Administration. The most important function of the Council was withdrawn, namely, the right of hearing and deciding on appeals to its authority from members of the *personnel* of Public Instruction threatened with dismissal. The right of dismissal was now secured to the Minister. The Council, a few months later, assumed the title of *Conseil Imperial de l'Instruction Publique*, and thus constituted, continued in force during the Third Empire. It was again reconstituted in 1873, the principle on which this reconstruction was based being that the new Council was to be a family assembly of the French people.‡

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\* M. Thiers.

† Monseigneur Dupanloup.

‡ Le nouveau Conseil Supérieur devait être une assemblée de famille de la famille Française tout entière, le clergé, les membres des divers cultes, le magistrature, le Conseil d'Etat, tous les grands

This Council held office till 1879. It consisted of representatives of the Army, the Navy, the College of France, the Faculties, the Councils of Arts and Manufactures, of Commerce and of Agriculture, all elected by their compeers. Of the forty members, twelve represented the public and four the private schools.

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*corps*, en un mot, qui sont comme les organes de la vie morale d'une nation avaient leur place assignée en proportion de leus importance dans ce Conseil Suprême ou les délégués désignés par eux devaient entrer par l'élection — M. le Duc de Broglie.





## CHAPTER VIII.

### THE SUPERIOR COUNCIL OF THE PRESENT DAY.

ORDER was now restored in the State. The disasters of 1870-71 were as far as possible repaired, and the administration set itself seriously to the task of remodelling and improving the system of National education. The law of 1880 framed the Superior Council on principles differing materially from those on which it had rested since the foundation of the Imperial University in 1808. It will be observed that the primary schools had hitherto no practical representation on the governing body. The new Council, according to M. Chalmet, the reporter of the measure in the *Chambre*, was to include representatives of all the great educational establishments, and in particular of the three degrees of instruction. M. Jules Ferry, then Minister of Public Instruction, defined the new Superior Council as "the grand committee for perfecting the National education. The first condition of membership shall be that of fitness—namely, to belong to the teaching body. We thus exclude all incompetent elements, systematically accumulated by the legisla-

tures of 1850 and 1873. As to the teaching element, we wish it to be master of itself. We conceive it subject to no one, nor superintended by any others than its own members. The Superior Council is one of the instruments of public authority. We do not admit that some sit there as representatives of the State and others as representatives of society. Whether it is a question of the public weal or of the military organization, of the authorities which administer justice, or of those who preside over education, society has no other recognized organ, no other regular and competent representation, than the assembly of the public powers, emanating directly or indirectly from the national will, and this whole is called the State."

The Measure in the Chamber of Deputies.

The measure was discussed in the Chamber of Deputies on the 17th and 19th July, 1879, and after some slight modifications, reducing the permanent element both in number and authority, it was carried and sent up to the Senate. The measure met with great opposition in that august assembly. After examination by a commission, under the presidency of M. Hippolyte Carnot, numbering, among others, Barthelemy Saint-Hilaire and Henri Martin, it appeared on the orders of the day for discussion on the 24th January, 1880. The first reading occupied

five sittings. The second was commenced on February 12th, and occupied also the sittings of the 14th and 16th. The discussion raged chiefly over the exclusion of the ministers of religion, the proposed jurisdiction of the Council over the private educational establishments, and the introduction of elected delegates of the secondary and primary schools. The Senate finally added to the Council five delegates of the Institute, elected by its members, one representative of the Catholic and one of the Protestant Faculties of Theology. Thus modified it was sent down to the Chamber, where the amendments were accepted almost unanimously, and the measure passed into law on the 27th February, 1880.

#### The Constitution of the Council.

The Superior Council, in accordance with this law, consists of—

The Minister of Public Instruction, Grand Master of the University—President.

Five members of the Institute, one from each of the five classes.

Nine Councillors, chosen by the President of the Republic, and selected from the Directors and ex-Directors of the Ministry of Public Instruction; from the Rectors, Professors and Inspectors-General; and from the Academy Inspectors.



Two Professors of the *Collège de France*, and one of the Museum, elected by their colleagues.

A Professor of the Faculty of Catholic Theology, and one of the Faculty of Protestant Theology.

Two Professors of the Faculty of Law.

Two Professors of the Faculty of Medicine.

A Professor of the Superior School of Pharmacy.

Two Professors of the Faculty of Science, and two of the Faculty of Letters—all elected by their colleagues.

Two Delegates of the Superior Normal College, one for Letters, the other for Science.

A Delegate of the Normal College for Special Instruction.

A Delegate of the National School of Maps and Charts.

A Professor of the School of Oriental Languages.

A Delegate of the Polytechnic School.

A Delegate of the School for Fine Arts.

A Representative of the *Conservatoire* of Arts and Trades.

A Representative of the Central School of Arts and Manufactures.

A Representative of the Agronomique Institute.

Eight Professors of Secondary Instruction, elected by the Professors and other functionaries of the Lycées.

Two Delegates of the Communal Colleges, and six



Members of the Primary Instruction, elected by the Inspectors-General of Primary Education, the Director of Primary Instruction of the Seine, the Academy Inspectors, the Primary Inspectors, the Directors and Directresses of the Normal Colleges, the Inspectrice-Générale, a special Delegate charged with the inspection of the infant classes, the Directors and Directresses of the Superior Primary Schools, and the Teachers, male and female, who are members of the Departmental Council.

The Council meets twice a-year at Paris, in the months of July and December. The President of the Republic appoints an acting-president and a secretary to the Council. The ordinary duration of these sessions is eight days. At the opening of the session the Minister causes to be distributed to the members a list of the questions which are to occupy their deliberations. The Council then forms itself into commissions, which divide between them for consideration the work submitted. Any member who wishes to submit a proposition to the Council must present it in writing to the President, who refers it to the permanent section. The nine members nominated by the President of the Republic, and six members chosen by the Minister of Public Instruction from the elected Councillors, form the Permanent Section of the Superior Council. The Minister decides, after receiving the report of the

latter on the proposition, whether it is to be submitted to the Council. A Committee is elected by ballot (the only one so elected) from the members, which holds office during the entire duration of the Council, to examine appeals from teachers, professors, and other educational functionaries under sentence of dismissal. This Committee consists now of fifteen members, and must include representatives of the higher, secondary, and elementary schools. The report of the Commission is submitted to the Superior Council, and a copy is placed at the disposal of the accused or parties interested. These or their advocates have a right to be heard before the Council when the report comes up for consideration. They retire before the decision of the Council is given, and the result is subsequently notified to all concerned by the Minister. The Superior Council is not only the directing authority of the University of France, but since 1880 it breathes life and energy and enthusiasm into the educational work of the nation. Its first session opened on the 31st May, 1880, when the Minister of Public Instruction declared that "for thirty years the University had been only an administration. It is from this day, which we may justly class as memorable, a living, organized and free body."

## CHAPTER IX.

### OTHER EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITIES.—COMITÉ CONSULTATIF.

THE Minister of Public Instruction is assisted by a *Comité Consultatif* for each of the three degrees of instruction. The *Comité Consultatif* for primary instruction consists of the Director-General of Primary Education, the Vice-Rector of the Academy of Paris, the Director of the Educational Museum (*Musée Pédagogique*), a Primary Inspector of the Seine, the Director and Directress of the Normal College of Paris, a Directress of the Cours Pratiques of the Salles d'Asile, and an Inspectress-General of Infant Schools. This Comité forms a kind of Educational Council to advise the Minister on the claims of private schools to receive State bursaries; on the progress of the studies in the Normal Colleges; on the examination papers for the different certificates; on dispensations as to age, etc.; on the class promotions of functionaries; and on various other matters connected with primary education.



## Administrative Divisions.

The Commune is the smallest subdivision of the French territory for administration. The Communes correspond nearly to our parishes; but while large towns with us are divided into several parishes, there is no corresponding subdivision in France, a town forming only one Commune. The Communes are governed by their own elected Municipal Council and Mayor (*Maire*). From ten to fifteen Communes constitute a Canton, and from eight to ten Cantons on an average form an *arrondissement* or district. The *arrondissement* has its own elected Council, which assesses local taxes and administers the affairs of the district under the jurisdiction of the Sub-Prefect. On an average four *arrondissements* form a Department, of which there are eighty-seven in France. The affairs of the Departments are administered by a Prefect, nominated by and representing the Central Government, and a "*Conseil Général*," composed of Councillors, elected, one for each Canton, by universal suffrage.

## Academies.

For the purposes of education France is formed into seventeen academies, each under a Rector and Council. The Academic Council is not concerned with elementary education, but the authority of the Rector of the

Academy extends over the three degrees of public instruction. He has the chief control of the Normal Colleges, under the immediate direction of the Ministers; and in the other primary schools he sees that the regulations, the programmes, and the methods approved by the Superior Council are carried into effect; he appoints in the various departments within his Academy the Commissions of Examination; he alone is entrusted with the duty of recommending to the Minister of Public Instruction for Academic rewards the functionaries of the Normal Colleges and teachers of the private schools; and he gives his opinion on the recommendations made by the Prefects for awarding similar distinctions to teachers.

The Academy Inspector is subordinate to the Rector and to the Prefect of the Department. He, however, exercises important functions and wields much influence in the matter of primary education. His authority has through recent legislation been greatly extended; he prepares the examination papers for the certificates of the higher primary studies. He delegates all probationers (*stagiaires*) to their functions in schools, and removes them from one school to another. He exercises the right of reprimanding, censuring, and of provisionally suspending teachers, and is Vice-President of the Departmental Council of Primary Instruction.

### The Prefect of the Department.

The Prefect appoints the teachers to their offices; he appoints to the bursaries of the superior primary schools, and in concert with the Academy Inspector submits the names of members of the teaching body to the Minister for medals, honours, and other rewards for services rendered in the domain of elementary instruction. His influence as President of the Departmental Council of Primary Education is very considerable. He, however, must select a teacher from the list drawn up annually by this Council, and must appoint on the nomination of the Academy Inspector. In case of disagreement between the Prefect and the Inspector, in respect to the appointment of a teacher, the question is referred to the Minister for decision.

### The Departmental Council of Primary Instruction.

There is in every department an Educational Council of Primary Instruction, called *Le Conseil Départemental de l'Enseignement Primaire*. It consists of—

- (1.) The Prefect—President.
- (2.) The Academy Inspector—Vice-President.
- (3.) Four Councillors—general members of the Departmental Council, elected by their colleagues.



(4.) The Director and Directress of the Normal (Training) Colleges.

(5.) Two Primary Inspectors, appointed by the Minister.

(6.) Two Primary Male and two Primary Female Teachers, elected by the teachers of the Department.

Two members of the private schools, one lay, the other a member of a religious body, are added to these to consider disciplinary or controversial questions relating to the private schools.

This Council is the principal educational authority in the Department. It decides on all matters affecting both the schools and the teachers, sees that the regulations, programmes, methods, &c., promulgated by the Superior Council are put into force. It draws up regulations for the arrangement and discipline of the schools, decides on the number of schools for each Commune and the number of teachers to be appointed to each, takes into consideration the reports and proposals of the Academy Inspector, the Cantonal delegates, and the *Commissions Municipales Scolaires*, and gives its advice on improvements and reformation in the organization of the schools. It receives annually, and discusses a general report from the Academy Inspector on the condition and requirements of the public schools, and on the condition of the private schools in the Department. Besides nominating the Cantonal



delegates it can delegate to a third of its own members the right of inspection in all the schools, public or private, of the Department; but when one of the teachers is included in this number he cannot exercise the right of inspection in the private schools. The Council also decides, subject to the approbation of the Minister, on the site of the schools to be established in each Commune. The Municipal Council may place its views on this question before the Departmental Council, but the latter is not obliged to act upon it. The Departmental Council draws up a list of teachers annually, who are to be admitted as *titulaire*, thus qualifying them for fulfilling the duties of principal, and a list of the teachers presented for promotion by the Academy Inspector on the report of the Primary Inspector. The Council likewise examines into all charges made against the teachers of the Department. The teachers may be subjected for neglect of duty to (1) reprimand, (2) censure, (3) recall from a particular school, (4) suspension for a time, or (5) absolute dismissal. The reprimand is pronounced by the Academy Inspector, and is not made public: any other form of penalty can be inflicted only under the sanction of the Departmental Council. Censure may be pronounced by the Academy Inspector, but only with the concurrence of the Council. The Prefect recalls the teacher on the

proposition of the Inspector, and acting on the advice of the Council. The teacher or other officer so dealt with can plead his cause before the Departmental Council, and can appeal from its decision to the Minister of Public Instruction. Suspension and dismissal are pronounced only by the Departmental Council. The teacher can appear before the Council to defend himself, and be represented by a legal adviser, and he can appeal against the decision to the Superior Council in Paris. The professors and teachers in the higher primary schools are reprimanded and censured in a similar manner; but as they are appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, they are recalled and dismissed by him only; and even then they have a right of appeal against the decision of the Minister to the Council of State.

The Departmental Council of Primary Education meets at least once every three months at the Prefecture, and on extraordinary occasions on a summons of the Prefect. The members are not paid. In all matters referring to the suspension and dismissal of teachers, the decision is taken by ballot, in other cases by open voting. The Mayor, the Inspectors, the Cantonal Delegates, the Commissions Scolaires, the Teachers, etc., all act under the immediate supervision of the Council, and no matter of importance, whether in regard to the schools or to the officers of

primary instruction, can be decided on unless with the concurrence or on the order of the Council.

Cantonal Delegates.—Délégés Cantonaux.

The Departmental Council of Primary Education nominates one or several delegates residing in each Canton of the Department to watch over the public and private schools of the Canton. They are appointed for three years and are not remunerated for their services. These delegates have not the right to exercise any authority as to the nature of the instruction in the schools. They are, according to a Ministerial circular, the representatives, in the name of the Law, of the families in the schools. It was deemed important that men unconnected with education should visit the schools and report on various matters affecting them—the state of the buildings, sanitary arrangements, state of the books, the furniture, etc. Hence the institution of Cantonal delegates in 1850. The Departmental Council assigns to each delegate the number of schools over which he is to exercise supervision, and he has not a right to enter any other schools in the Canton. These delegates may be present at the meetings of the Departmental Council of Primary Education, and may express their opinions on all affairs bearing on the condition of the schools under their superintendence. The delegates

meet at least once every three months, in the chief place of the Canton, under the presidency of one of their number, and decide on a report and recommendations to be transmitted to the Departmental Council of Primary Education.





## CHAPTER X.

### THE DIFFERENT GRADES OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.— INFANT SCHOOLS.

LET us now glance at the result of this legislation, examine the French system as we find it at the present day, and inquire into its operation and its bearing on the progress of the nation. The elementary schools in France are—infants' schools, including, in places where there are no special infant schools, infant classes attached to elementary schools; elementary primary schools; superior primary schools; and apprentice schools. Beyond these are the normal or training colleges. The infant schools were at first establishments of charity, *asylums* destined to collect together during the day the infant children of the working classes, and particularly those whose mothers were obliged to leave their homes for the factories. It was soon perceived that in protecting these children from the dangers of the streets, in bestowing on them physical care, their moral education, and even their literary instruction could at the same time be commenced. It was thus

that the idea arose of transforming the asylum into a school of the first degree open to all, and serving as a preparation for the elementary school.

#### Infant Schools.

The asiles were then transformed into infant schools, under the title of "*Salles d'Asile*," a term which savoured of the charitable nature of the institutions whence they sprang. Hence the term *Salle d'Asile* was abandoned for "*Ecole Maternelle*," which was considered more suitable.\*

It was not until the year 1881 that these infant schools were placed among the establishments of primary education, and then only at the option of Communes with a population of at least 2,000. In no case is State aid granted to these schools where the population falls below this figure. The infant schools are invariably under mistresses, and if the average reaches fifty they are entitled to an assistant. They are visited weekly by a doctor, and a female attendant may be appointed by the mayor on the nomination of the directress or head-mistress. We find the scope and aim of these schools

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\* It is to Comenius that the appellation *Ecole Maternelle* is due. He distinguished a first degree of instruction imparted by mothers in their homes under the name of *Schola Materni Gremii*



gradually extended, until, in 1887, a Ministerial decree, explanatory of the educational law of the preceding year, defines them as establishments for imparting a first or introductory education, moral, intellectual, and physical. Children are admitted at the age of two years on an order signed by the mayor, and remain in these schools until they have completed their sixth year. The schools are formed into two sections, based on the age and intelligence of the pupils. One consists of the children between the ages of two and five—the second section, as it is called; and the other of those between five and six. The programmes for these schools will be given in full in a subsequent chapter. Great care has been taken to exclude any attempts at mental pressure in these infant schools. The games and manual instruction are placed at the head of the programme to impress all the more strongly on the teachers the idea that the development of the physical organs and of the senses should preponderate in the school work.\*

This is a wise provision. To impose an intellectual labour on children of such tender years would have the effect only of rendering their youthful lives unhappy, without any proportionate advantage, but

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\* L'Ecole maternelle est une Ecole d'éducation et non une école d'instruction à proprement parler—" *Organization pédagogique*"—*Gabriel Compayré*.

rather a negative result, instilling a disgust for the school, which could not fail to have a baneful influence on the future studies.

The Superior Council on the Instruction in Infant Schools.

The Superior Council has admirably defined the spirit in which the programmes should be applied. The circular appended to the decree of January, 1887, is an educational masterpiece, setting forth the nature of the instruction intended to be imparted in the various schools, its aims and object, and the method to be pursued by the teacher. In regard to the infant schools it lays down that—

“The *Ecole Maternelle* is not a school in the ordinary sense of the word; it forms the transition from the home to the school; it preserves the affectionate kindness and indulgence of home at the same time that it initiates into the work and regularity of the school. The success of the Directress of the infant school is not then judged essentially by the amount of information communicated, by the level which the instruction attains, by the number and duration of the lessons, but rather by the sum-total of the good influences to which the child is subjected, by the pleasure which he is made to derive from the school, by the habits of order, of correctness, of politeness, of attention, of obedience, of

intellectual activity, which he must contract therein, so to say, in playing. As a consequence, the Directresses shall pre-occupy themselves with endeavouring to hand over to the primary school, not so much, children advanced in their instruction as children well prepared to receive instruction. All the exercises of the *Ecole Maternelle* shall be regulated after this general principle: they ought to aid in the development of the different faculties of the child without giving rise to fatigue, restraint, or excess of application. They are destined to make him love the schools, to give him early a taste for work, without imposing on him an amount of labour incompatible with the feebleness and unsteadiness of the earlier years.

“The end in view in taking into account the diversity of temperament—the precocity of some and the slowness of others—is, not to cause them all to reach such and such a degree of knowledge in reading, writing, and calculation, but rather to effect that they shall know well the little which they do know, that they shall like their tasks, their games, their lessons of all kinds; above all that they may not take a disgust to these first school exercises which might be so quickly repulsive if the patience, the sprightliness, the ingenious affection of the mistress did not find a means of varying them, of enlivening them, of drawing from or attaching thereto some pleasure for the child.”



The result of this infant training should be, as the circular points out—"good health, the hearing, the vision, the touch already exercised by a graduated succession of these little games and of these little experiences fitted to educate the senses; a commencement of habit and order on which the primary school might later on base a regular education. A taste for gymnastics, for singing, for drawing, for recitations; a desire to listen, to see, to observe, to imitate, to question, to answer; a certain faculty of attention maintained by docility, confidence and good humour; the intelligence awakened, in fact, and the soul opened to every good moral impression. Such ought to be the result of the first years passed in the infant school; and if the child on leaving, enters the primary school with such a preparation, it matters little that he should add to it a few pages more or less of the primer." The circular then goes on to point out the method of instruction.

"These principles being laid down, what is the method which it is expedient to apply to the *Écoles Maternelles*? It is evidently that which is inspired by the very name of the establishment; that is to say, that which consists in imitating as far as possible the processes of education followed by an intelligent and devoted mother. As it is not proposed in the infant schools to form or exercise one order of the faculties to the detriment of the others,

but in fine, to develop them all harmoniously, these schools need not follow rigorously any special methods. The teachers must endeavour to form, with the aid of the lessons and exercises, a course of instruction and of education which will answer to the different wants of the little child, and will set in play all his faculties. The exercises which this course includes ought to be very varied ; object lessons, conversations, singing, the first attempts at drawing, reading, calculations, recitations, should divide the time with bodily exercises, games of every kind, and gymnastic movements. It is a method essentially natural, familiar, always open to new progress, always capable of being reformed."

The mistress of one of these schools must, as in the case of ordinary primary schools, be provided with the certificate of *d'Aptitude pédagogique*. She must address annually a report on the state of her school to the *Inspectrice Départementale*, or where there is no such functionary, to the Primary Inspector. These schools are closed only for eight days at Easter and for the first fifteen days of August. It is plain that special infant schools can exist only in towns, considerable villages, or dense centres of population. A class was therefore formed called the *Classe Enfantine*, intended to serve as a transition from the infants' to the primary schools,

and as a substitute for the infant school where the latter did not exist. In the former case they are usually attached to the infant schools, in the latter, to the primary schools, and by preference to a girls' school, where there is such a school. These classes are not obligatory, but may be formed and receive State aid without regard to the population in the Commune. Children of both sexes are admitted to them from the age of four to seven years. The course of instruction includes the higher course of the infant school, and the junior course of the elementary school.





## CHAPTER XI.

### ELEMENTARY PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

THE classification of the pupils and the division of the programmes is in France based on a principle essentially different from ours. The system which still holds with us was in operation in the French schools in the early years of this century. It, however, soon began to fall into disfavour. The multiplication of classes was regarded as unfavourable to the progress of schools with only one teacher, and as early as the year 1834, the Royal Council on Education established the principle of dividing the programme into three sections or courses. Finally, the decree of 1887 made this division obligatory for every primary school in France. The first principle of organization in French primary schools is based on the division of the programme into the elementary, the middle, and the superior *cours* or courses. This entails the classification of the pupil into three corresponding groups. This division is distinct from the class, the number of classes corresponding in general to the number of teachers. In rural schools in which there is only one teacher there is said to be only

one class, though there are three groups of pupils corresponding to the three *cours* of the programme. In such schools no sub-division of the pupils in the middle or superior courses is allowed, but the elementary course may be formed into two sub-divisions. In schools with two teachers one takes charge of the middle and superior course, and the other of the elementary, together with the infant class, in case there is such a class in the school. In schools with three masters, each course forms a distinct class; with four, the elementary forms two classes, each under a teacher; in schools with five teachers, the elementary and middle course form each two classes, each class in charge of a teacher; in a school with six teachers, each course forms two distinct classes. Whenever a course is divided into two classes, one forms the first year of the course; the other the second year.

When there are more than two classes or teachers, the principal takes the title of Director or Directress, and in addition to having a class, is charged with assisting and directing the less experienced teachers, watching over the discipline and instruction, corresponding with the parents, conducting examinations, etc. In certain cases, when there are more than five classes, the Director is relieved from the duty of teaching a class and confines himself to supervision. The same subjects form the programmes

for all the three courses. These programmes are the same for every public school in France. There are no optional subjects. The middle course is only an extension of the knowledge in the same subjects of the elementary course, and the superior course an extension of those of the middle.

Every Commune must have at least one public primary school, and in those whose population exceeds 500 there must be a special girls' school; but in certain circumstances permission may be obtained to replace both by a mixed school. The boys' schools are always in charge of a master, but by a provision which looks somewhat strange, an assistant in one of these schools may be a female, provided she is the wife, the sister, or a near relative of the teacher. The girls' and mixed schools are under females, but in mixed schools the Departmental Council may appoint a male teacher, provided there is a work-mistress. This provision has been largely availed of. Out of somewhat above 18,000 mixed schools in 1887, no less than 13,000 were in charge of masters. Whenever female teachers were placed in charge of mixed schools, owing to the imperfect means which until recently existed for their training, the attendance of boys fell away.\* This, however, is no longer

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\* Dans beaucoup de villages, l'essai a été, tenté on n'a réussi qu'à remplacer l'école de garçons par une école de filles. Les



the case. French women are naturally kind and attentive to children, and when well trained, as they are at the present time, they make excellent teachers. I have rarely met a French mistress who was not fully impressed with a sense of the duty she owed to the children entrusted to her care, and who did not speak of them and of her mission with an appreciative and sympathetic interest.

The primary elementary school is in general situated in the chief place of the Commune; but the Communes are by no means limited to one school. The law of 1883, relative to the building of schools in the chief places of Communes, makes provision also for the building of *Ecoles de hameau* in villages or centres of population, removed from the chief seat of the Commune or from other schools by at least three kilometres, where there are at least twenty children of the school age. As the programmes are, as we have said, the same all through France, the difference in the schools consists merely in the character of the instruction, and in the knowledge of the same subjects imparted. This is a very stringent regulation, and entirely different from our plan, which first lays down a compulsory programme

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garçons ont été retiré par leurs parents. Le peu de capacité de la plupart des institutrices explique cette conduite.—*L'Ecole*—M. Jules Simon.

and then leaves an option to the teacher in respect to several other subjects. This last is undoubtedly, within certain limitations, a wise principle, for it gives the teacher often the opportunity of adapting the special or extra instruction to the needs of his pupils, as indicated by the pursuits of the neighbourhood and the future occupations of the scholars, and thus enables him to take a step towards that specialised instruction in technical and industrial subjects which has not yet been afforded in connection with, or supplementary to, our elementary systems. The French plan of strictly limiting the programme, and fixing the subjects absolutely for every elementary school, would have its shortcomings in this respect had the State not made special provision for technical and industrial instruction.





## CHAPTER XII.

### PRIVATE SCHOOLS—STATE CONTROL.

SUCH are the establishments provided by the State for the education of the masses, which the children from six to thirteen years of age are compelled to attend, unless attending some other approved public or private school, or receiving instruction in their own homes.

The French law affords liberty of education in all its degrees, by which is understood the right of parents to select either public or private schools, or to instruct their children in their own homes, the State satisfying itself of the sufficiency of the education thus imparted. Of course, the vast majority of the children of the school age are attending either the private or the public schools. The law of 1886 decrees that elementary schools may be either public—that is, maintained by the State, the Departments and Communes—or private; that is, founded and supported by particular persons or associations. The private schools cannot receive subventions from either the State, the Departments, or the Communes. The same certificate as to age, qualification, &c., is

required of teachers in the private as in the public schools, but the former are entirely free in the choice of programmes, methods, and books, unless in case of such works as are interdicted by the Superior Council, as contrary to morality, the Constitution, or the laws. There is, of course, perfect freedom of religious instruction in the private schools.

What Liberty of Education Consists in.

It may be interesting to examine a little more closely into the nature of this liberty of education. Within the shores of Great Britain and Ireland it would seem an unwarrantable interference with the rights and liberties of the subject to insist on State authority for the opening of a private school. Yet, in France, the law not only forbids the opening of such establishments, except with the permission of the authorities, but also insists on supervision as to the effectiveness of the instruction and the qualifications of the teachers. It maintains that it is one of the supreme duties of the State to see that all its subjects are well instructed, and acting on this principle, it provides that the amount of tuition necessary to all ought to be placed gratuitously within reach. This duty, undertaken by the State, implies a corresponding duty on the part of the subjects—namely, to avail of the education thus placed gratuitously at their doors. Nothing seems

so illogical as that a State should lay down a certain duty towards a class of its subjects, involving vast expenditure, and then not insist on the observance by that class of the corresponding obligation. It was not until education was made free in France that all were compelled to avail of it, if not in the State schools, then in their homes or in other establishments of their choice. These then are required to maintain a degree of efficiency under State control.

#### The Founding of Private Schools.

A teacher who is desirous of opening a private school enters a declaration to that effect, specifying the class of school, on a register kept for the purpose at the Mayor's office. The Mayor signs the declaration, delivers free copies to the teacher, and affixes one at the door of the *Mairie*, where it remains a month. Within three days the Mayor notifies the observance of this formality to the Academy Inspector. The teacher sends to the Prefect one of the copies of his declaration which he has received from the Mayor; a second to the Procureur of the Republic; and a third, accompanied by his diplomas, to the Academy Inspector, who causes it to be transcribed in a register in his bureau. Within eight days from the reception of this declaration, the Mayor informs the Prefect, the Academy Inspector, and the teacher whether he opposes the



opening of the school, and in case that he does oppose it, he must state the reason on which he grounds his opposition. The case is then referred to the Departmental Council of Primary Instruction, and the teacher is at liberty to plead his cause before the Council, either in person or through counsel, and to examine witnesses if necessary. When the decision of the council is notified to all the parties to the cause, any one of them has a right to appeal to the Superior Council of Education in Paris. The Prefect transmits the appeal and the documents to the Minister of Public Instruction, who lays the case before the Superior Council. The decision of this body is in all cases final.

All private schools are open to the inspection of the educational authorities. A special register must be kept in each school, in which is inserted the date and place of birth of the teachers employed therein, the occupations in which they were previously engaged, their places of residence, and the dates of their certificates and diplomas. The books in use, the exercises, and all matters relating to the sanitary arrangements, accommodation, &c.; in fact everything relating to the efficiency of the school passes under the examination of the Inspector. The Inspectors in their reports treat these schools in much the same manner as the ordinary public schools, and when books are found in use that are interdicted

by the Superior Council, they are required to seize them and transmit them with their reports. The vast majority of the private establishments are in the charge of religious communities, and it would seem that in general the Inspectors discharge their duties in connection with these establishments to the satisfaction of the communities and teachers.

Children receiving instruction in their own homes are supposed to be presented annually for examination by a Primary Inspector. The Regulations, as set forth by the law of 1882, are, however, capable of great elasticity, and as a consequence can be hardly said to be in operation.





## CHAPTER XIII.

### SUPERIOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—ÉCOLES PRIMAIRES SUPÉRIEURES.

THE course of instruction imparted in the elementary schools embraces neither a very wide range of subjects nor a very deep knowledge of these subjects. It is in fact, as in name, a primary course of instruction which aims at developing the faculties of the children. At the same time it imparts information which shall prove of practical use in the course of life to the vast majority of the children whose education ceases with the elementary school, and which may serve as a foundation whereon the smaller number of the pupils who aspire to higher pursuits may build up the fabric of higher commercial, technical, and professional education. The young scholar who passes from the elementary primary school at the age of thirteen, having spent two years at least in the superior *cours*, has been taught to speak with grammatical correctness, to write and read the French language with ease and fluency, and to recite from memory many fine selections from the poets. He has read in the school some of the

best scenes from the great French dramatists ; he has acquired general ideas of the history of antiquity—Egypt, the Israelites, Greece, Rome—of the Middle Ages, and of Modern Europe, and a deeper knowledge of the history of France, with special reference to its modern history, of the French colonies, and of the main features of the physical and political history of Europe. He has also acquired a knowledge of arithmetic in its most useful forms, including the metric system, interest and discount ; he has got elementary notions of geometry, freehand, model and geometric drawing ; a very elementary course of physical and natural science, agriculture, music, and civic instruction, this last embracing the main features of the French constitution, such as the constitutional functions of the President of the Republic, of the Senate, of the Chamber of Deputies, of the Central and Departmental Administration, of the army, etc. This course of instruction does not pretend to depth, but rather to be of general utility. The programme has been drawn up with care by the best educationists in the nation ; steps have been taken, in the formation of the courses of the programme, to avoid any crowding of subjects which may lead to pressure and to unscientific methods of teaching. While the idea of imparting as much valuable information as possible within the compulsory school age has been kept well

in view, it is not permitted to predominate. It has never been lost sight of, that the object to be kept in view in the work of elementary education is to impart a certain amount of useful information, and in the process, to develop the intelligence—to lead the children to exercise their reasoning powers, to look at things as they are, to make deductions, to examine, to observe, to group together common properties, etc.

The superior primary schools are the most recent addition to the French system of elementary education. These may form a class supplementary to, and attached to the primary schools—a class in which the instruction is continued for a maximum period of two years; in this case they are termed *Cours Complémentaires*. When they exist as separate schools they are called *Ecoles Primaires Supérieures*, in which the course of instruction extends over two years at least, and when over three, or more, they are said to be in full working order. The superior primary schools are of two classes, professional and non-professional. The former, while still preserving a literary and scientific character, are more specially commercial, technical, and industrial schools, including also the apprentice schools (*Ecoles Manuelles d'Apprentissage*), whose object is to instruct young persons in the principles and practice of a trade, and the three *Ecoles Nationales*, preparatory to apprenticeship, recently founded by the State, at Voiron,



Armentières and Vierzon.\* The non-professional schools are mainly literary and scientific; they are under the immediate charge of the Minister of Public Instruction. The *Ecoles Primaires Supérieures* were originally created to fill up the blank in National education which existed between the primary schools and the secondary schools, and to afford to that portion of the population which was competent to receive and benefit by it, a higher degree of education than that imparted in the primary schools. The primary schools, it was stated, aimed at imparting the education which was indispensable to all; the superior primary schools were founded to add to this that which should be useful to the many. The programmes of these schools included, in addition to reading, writing, calculations and religious instruction—which were the only subjects taught in the primary school during the Consulate, the Empire, and the Restoration—the elements of practical geometry, natural history, physics, history, geography, music, and a modern language as an optional subject. Guizot's law provided for one of those higher elementary schools in the chief place in each Department, and one for every town with 6,000 inhabitants or above. The provisions,

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\* The constitution and working of these will be described in a future volume on Technical and Industrial Instruction.

however, could not have been put into force at once, owing to various difficulties, among others the want of competent teachers. They sprang up gradually in various parts of France, and seem to have entered on a useful and prosperous course until diverted, in 1841, from the purposes they were originally intended to serve. From this period they seem to have declined, and having been ignored by the Educational Law of 1850, they fell away under the Third Empire, and at its close formed but a very poor element in the educational machinery of the State. There can be no doubt that the failure of these schools arose in great measure from the competition of the secondary schools. They were too similar to them in their higher courses, and, being still regarded as primary schools, the more aristocratic secondary schools were preferred to them. A project was formed to resuscitate these schools in 1878, and carried into effect by the law of 1886. In each of them there is an obligatory course, but as it was intended that they should answer a double purpose—to be complementary to the ordinary primary schools, and specially technical and industrial—the course to effect the former object was determined for all the schools, and that for the latter was to be regulated according to the pursuits and industries of the districts in which they were situated. With a view of carrying out more effectively this



latter function, special teachers may be engaged for either the complementary courses, or for the superior schools, to give instruction in subjects relating to arts and industries.\*

In the first three years of the school course the instruction embraces an average of six hours daily, Thursdays excepted. In general, nine hours weekly are devoted to literary instruction, including French language and literature, history, geography, civic and moral instruction; nine hours to science, including mathematical, physical, and natural science, and excursions in connection with these studies; four hours to modern languages; three hours to drawing; four hours to manual work; and one hour to music. In the fourth and further years the course of instruction may be mainly industrial and technical, reserving only ten hours weekly for other subjects. All pupils for admission must be provided with the certificate of primary studies; they are admitted at the age of twelve, or at eleven if provided with the certificate at that age, and may continue in the schools till eighteen years of age.

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\* Des cours accessoires intéressants plus particulièrement l'industrie de la contrée peuvent être autorisés par le ministre sur la demande du comité de patronage et la proposition de l'inspecteur d'académie après avis du conseil municipal et du conseil départemental.—Arrêté du 18 Janvier, 1887.

Government of the Ecoles Primaires Supérieures.

These schools are under the control of the Minister of Public Instruction. Each school is placed under the immediate supervision of a *Comité de Patronage*, nominated by a Ministerial decree on the proposition of the Rector of the Academy. The Directors and Directresses of a particular school, the Primary Inspector, the Rector, and the Academy Inspector are, *ex-officio*, members of the Committee; and in the case of girls' schools lady patrons must form part of the Committee. The Committee nominates its own President and Secretary; it meets at least twice annually on the summons of its President, and in special cases when convened by either the President or the Academy Inspector. At its ordinary meetings it nominates a sub-committee to visit the school at least once a month and report to the Committee at the next meeting. The Committee is entrusted with the general supervision of the schools, and of all that pertains to their efficiency and the interests of the pupils. It takes the latter under its patronage, and endeavours to settle them in suitable occupations at the end of their school course. The pupils who hold State bursaries are especially under the care of the Committee. The Committee further deals with all matters of school requisites and furniture, and decides on the measures which are to be taken to adapt the

special instruction to the local requirements, industries, manufactures, agricultural occupations, &c., on questions affecting the continuance of the bursary holders, on their transfer or forfeiture, &c. All these establishments have a workshop attached. The Directors and Directresses must be provided with a certificate for the Professorship of the Normal Colleges, and they are appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction. The other teachers are in general provided with this certificate, in which case they take the title of Professor; they must be at least twenty-one years of age at the time of appointment.

These schools were practically resuscitated in 1878 by a vote of 100,000 francs in the Budget for that year; there were then only about forty of them in all France. From that date the numbers have uniformly increased, as well as the annual vote for their maintenance, which for 1890 amounted to 1,500,000 francs, or £60,000. From recent statistics it would appear that there are in all France 431 complementary courses, 308 for boys, and 123 for girls, all attached to primary public schools. The Superior Primary Schools, including the Municipal Schools of Paris, number 185 for boys, in eighty-one of which the course of study is a two-years' course, in eighty a three-years' course, and in twenty-four a four-years' course, or above; seventy-



one for girls, in which thirty have a two-years' course, thirty a three-years' course, ten a four-years' course, and one a five-years' course. In this list the *Ecoles Professionnelles Nationales* are not included. There were, in addition, four private Primary Superior Schools for boys, and fifteen for girls, which received State bursaries. In 1889 there were 17,252 boys and 5,444 girls attending the Superior Primary Public Schools, and 8,060 boys and 3,324 girls in the *Cours Complémentaires*.

These institutions in some districts have not proved an unqualified success. The great drawback seems to be the want of sufficient attendance, and this no doubt is to some extent due to the secondary schools having programmes, it is true, of a somewhat different character, but still not so different as to render the superior schools, institutions connecting the elementary with the secondary schools. The tendency in recent years has been to render these schools more technical and industrial. They are likely to be much altered in this direction, now that a course of secondary instruction has been introduced into the *Lycées*, consisting of English and German (instead of the ancient classics), literature and science. The connection between the superior primary schools and the secondary schools is of a very slender character. Few pupils pass from the one to the other; a certain number of those who

hold State bursaries are, however, transferred annually to the *Lycées*. Many more are likely to pass, both from the primary and superior primary schools, to the secondary institutions in future, owing to the above-mentioned change in the programmes of the *Lycées*. In any country there would be two classes of such pupils—namely, the children of fairly well-to-do parents, who aim at higher occupations and who have the means to enable them to pursue the regular course; and, secondly, pupils of poorer parents, who having completed the course of the elementary school, and being distinguished for special talent or aptitude, would find it to their advantage to pursue their education with a view of qualifying for higher commercial, technical, and professional occupations, if the circumstances of their parents enabled them to do so. It is here that these *Ecoles Primaires Supérieures* step into the aid of the latter class of scholars; and they seem to us, in aiding deserving but poor students from the elementary schools, to fulfil most important functions.

From economic considerations, in view of the generally small attendance, the law of July, 1889, placed restrictions on the further extending of these superior primary schools, except under conditions which will ensure a sufficient attendance of pupils. No Commune is permitted to found one of these schools, or a *Cours Complémentaire*, except it engages



to make the subvention necessary for the maintenance of the school obligatory on the Communal taxation for at least five years; and the State withdraws its subvention when the attendance falls below fifteen for the superior primary schools, and twelve for the *Cours Complémentaire*.

#### State Bursaries.

Not only is the education free in the *Ecoles Primaires Supérieures*, but the State likewise awards bursaries to scholars to enable them to pursue their course in these schools. Each year the Minister determines, proportionately to the population and to the number of superior primary schools, the amount to be awarded to each department for founding bursaries in these establishments. These bursaries are of three kinds: first, bursaries entitling the holder to boarding in one of these schools, not exceeding 500 francs annually; second, bursaries ranging from 100 to 400 francs, awarded to pupils residing with their parents, and attending a superior primary school; third, bursaries of 500 francs, awarded to pupils residing in a family other than their own in the neighbourhood of one of these schools.

These bursaries are awarded on the result of an examination, in addition to which the following circumstances are taken into account:—Services rendered to the State by the candidate's parents,

the condition of the parents, and the number of children in the family. Commissions are appointed to hold annual examinations for these bursaries. Candidates are required to furnish, amongst other documents, an extract of the taxes paid by their parents, and a list of the children in the family, with the ages certified by the Mayor. Candidates who have not already obtained the certificate of primary studies must engage to do so at the next examination, until which the title to hold a bursary when successful is not confirmed.

In addition to these bursaries, grants are made to enable poor pupils who win bursaries to provide themselves with a becoming outfit. These grants for outfit are not awarded to bursary holders who reside with their own parents. The sum awarded ranges from 300 francs for the first year to 100 for each succeeding year. In addition, a sum not exceeding 25 francs may be awarded annually for class requisites.

Pupils on competing for the bursaries must produce satisfactory evidence of good conduct and character. To entitle the holders to continue in the enjoyment of the bursary, they must not only conform to discipline and maintain a good character in the school, but must also pursue with success the courses of the programme from year to year. Every year they are subjected to an examination before the

Primary Inspector, the Director, and Professors of the school, in the subjects of the programme for the year then ended. Those who satisfy the examiner obtain a continuance of their bursaries for the succeeding year ; those who fail are deprived of them. The holders of bursaries who have arrived at the age of sixteen years may be transferred to the establishments of secondary instruction with a continuance of their bursaries. The Academy Inspector transmits annually to the Minister of Public Instruction a list of the scholars whom he proposes to transfer from the superior primary schools to the *Lycées* or other secondary schools, giving at the same time a report of the proficiency displayed by the candidates during the year.

Until within the last ten years the study of modern languages was more or less neglected in France, in connection with primary instruction ; but great efforts have lately been made to popularise the study of them. With this view a number of bursaries are offered annually to pupils who have obtained the certificate of superior primary studies, and who are not less than sixteen nor more than nineteen years of age, to enable them to reside in some foreign country to study the language. The career of the candidates in the superior primary schools, their conduct, habits, aptitude, etc., are considered in awarding these scholarships. A written examination is held at the



chief place of each department. The papers are corrected by a Commission at Paris, whither candidates who have passed the written examination are called, to undergo an oral examination. The Minister awards the scholarship on the result of the examination.

Notwithstanding that the superior primary schools have not entirely satisfied the French authorities in the work they perform, they are still fulfilling important functions, and give annually a large number of fairly trained youths to commerce, industry, and agriculture. It was feared at first that these schools would become training schools for candidates for State employments, but these anticipations have been falsified by the result. The pupils are not educated at such expense to the State without some efforts being made to secure them employments adapted to the training imparted. The Committees of Patronage endeavour to obtain employment for the pupils as they pass from the schools, and an association is now being formed for the same object, and particularly to assist the bursar-holders who have returned after their stay in foreign countries. It is, I understand, intended to find employment for some of these in America and other countries, in business, where they cannot fail to become agents for the promotion of French trade and commerce.

The society is under the patronage of the Minister



of Public Instruction. It has a wide field for its operations even within the limits of France. At the great warehouse, the Bon Marché, in Paris, for instance, there are no less than seventy interpreters, of whom only twelve are Frenchmen. The Committee of the Association will endeavour to make clear to such firms that it would be at least as good for them to employ Frenchmen in this capacity, and will show them that such are to be had in the bursar-holders who have returned from foreign countries.

The pupils who had passed from the superior primary schools in 1889 were settled in employment as follows :

Commerce	..	..	..	1,590
Industry	..	..	..	2,130
Agriculture	..	..	..	570
Banks and Financial Administrations				263
Railways	..	..	..	111
Army and Navy	..	..	..	143
Primary Training Colleges for Teaching				496
Special Schools preparatory to different professions	..	..	..	547
Other establishments of primary or secondary education	..	..	..	644
Different State offices	..	..	..	294
Offices of Architects and Engineers	..	..	..	134

Offices of Ministerial officials	..	194
Sent to study in foreign countries	..	72
Returned to their homes without any known occupation	.. ..	651
Died	.. ..	41
<hr/>		
Total	.. ..	7,869



## CHAPTER XIV.

### INSPECTION OF THE SCHOOLS.

IN respect to all that concerns the instruction, the schools are under the immediate supervision of the Primary Inspectors, of whom there is one at least for each *arrondissement*. In 1890 there were fifteen Primary Inspectors in Paris, and 425 in the Departments and Algiers. These officers are under the immediate orders of the Academy Inspector, and receive their instructions from him as well as from the Rector, the Inspectors-General, and the Minister. They exercise supervision over the public and private schools of their districts, see that the laws are observed, make recommendations on the appointment and promotion of teachers to the public schools, on awards for the efficient discharge of their duties, and on the penalties to be inflicted in cases of neglect. The inspection of the schools does not include an individual examination of all the scholars. The Inspectors visit the schools at will without any notice given to the teachers, examine classes as well as the exercise-books of the pupils, and report on the general proficiency without specifying names or

awarding marks in the various subjects to each individual pupil. In other words, there is no annual examination similar to our Results' Examination. The Academy Inspector exercises supervision over all the public and private schools in the Department, but it is evident that he cannot visit all the elementary schools within the year, and that he must base his judgment as to the state of these schools and the character of the teachers on the reports of the Primary Inspectors. The Rector of the Academy exercises the same jurisdiction within the Academy; both the Primary Inspector and the Academy Inspector are under his immediate authority. The Inspectors-General of Public Primary Instruction are charged with visiting all the schools of France. They are under the immediate orders of the Minister of Public Instruction, who assigns to each the Departments which he is to visit every year. There are at present six ordinary Inspectors-General, and four for the supervision of special subjects which have a bearing more or less on technical and industrial instruction. The Inspectors-General receive their appointment from the President of the Republic. The scope of their reports, which they address to the Minister of Public Instruction, extends to the state of the schools and the merits of the teachers of Primary Schools, of the professors and directors of Normal Colleges, and of Primary and Academy



Inspectors. Their duties are by no means confined to the narrow limits too frequently assigned to school inspection, namely, testing what the pupils have learned without regard to how the instruction has been imparted. Their mission is not only to examine, but to instruct teachers, inspectors, etc. The authority of the Inspectors-General does not extend to the infant schools, nor are they required to examine and inspect in all the subjects of the school programmes. Those subjects of a technical and industrial character are subjected to special inspection. There are special inspectors for manual instruction in the training colleges and superior primary schools under the supervision of an Inspector-General. Modern languages are likewise subject to inspection in these establishments. There are special inspectors of drawing in the Normal colleges, and an Inspector-General charged with the supervision. There is likewise an Inspector-General for gymnastics and military exercises, and one for the examination of the bursar's accounts in the training colleges. There are four Inspectrices-General for the infant schools, and one for the industrial and superior primary schools for girls.

*Cahiers de Devoirs Mensuels.*

After the inspection of the school, the Primary Inspector addresses a report to the Academy Inspector

This indicates the proficiency of the classes and the progress of the school work, the character of the instruction, reforms which he considers desirable, and the state of the school buildings, furniture, etc. A distinct section of the report sets forth the Inspector's estimate of the merits of every teacher engaged in the school. The inspection of French primary schools is very much facilitated by an expedient which we should gladly see introduced into these countries. A ministerial decree of the 27th July, 1883, prescribes that each pupil on entering the school is to receive a special cahier (exercise-book), which must be preserved during the time that the scholar remains therein. The first exercise of every month in each subject of the course shall be written in this exercise-book by the pupil, in the school, and without any assistance. These are always ready for examination, and while they are a great incentive to efficiency, they readily enable the Inspector to observe whether the teachers are following the programme, and to judge of the progress made by the pupils from month to month and from year to year during the entire school period. Slates are very little used in the better classes of French schools, with the result that the children are in general proficient at committing their ideas to writing and at working exercises on paper in a concise and presentable form. The introduction of the *Cahiers de Devoirs Mensuels*

was, after the system had been in operation for a year, found to work with great success. Whenever an innovation of this character is introduced into the French system, and that after trial it is found to work successfully, the teachers are not then allowed to set it in operation, each after his own peculiar ideas. Specific directions, pointing out how it can be applied to further the progress of the school and to enhance the value of the instruction, are issued from the Ministry. This could be done only where the Minister is surrounded by officials who are not clerks and examining machines, merely, but men who have proved themselves by their works masters in the principles which underlie the science and practice of education. The Minister is surrounded with men of this class whose public works on education and psychology are of a high order and have done much to promote the interests of popular instruction in France. It is these that deliberate on, and draw up, those educational documents full of sound precepts on the methods of teaching, on the course to be followed in regard to particular subjects, on the introduction of new schemes, and how they shall be brought into force in the schools, and the direction which is to be given to their provisions in order to promote the instruction ; documents which, as educational masterpieces, form a code equalled perhaps by that of no other country in Europe.

One of these documents was issued from the Ministry on the 25th October, 1884, giving directions on those several points in connection with the *Cahiers de Devoirs Mensuels*, which had been tried during the course of the preceding year and found beneficial. Since that date, the *Cahiers* have formed a valuable record of the progress made, from year to year, by the pupils in the elementary schools of France.





## CHAPTER XV.

### THE EXAMINATIONS FOR CERTIFICATES OF PRIMARY STUDIES.

IN addition to the examinations which the primary inspectors hold from time to time of the classes in primary schools, there is a special examination for the certificates of primary studies, for which pupils may present themselves at the age of eleven. This is not obligatory on the scholars, but those who obtain the certificate before the age of thirteen are exempted from further compulsory attendance at school. Those who continue in school till the age of thirteen need not necessarily present themselves for examination for the certificates. This certificate was instituted in 1866. From that date till 1880 the examination was usually held by the teacher in the school in the presence of the *Curé* and the *Maire*. The examinations are now held in the chief place or in a central Commune of each Canton, by commissions appointed by the Rector, of which the Primary Inspector is President. Ladies are added to the Commissions of Examination for girls. The teachers draw up a list of the scholars who are desirous of presenting them-

selves for the examination. The parents of those children not attending a public school, who intend to have them presented for the examination, send their names to the *Maire*. The list is then transmitted to the Primary Inspector. The examinations are both oral and written. The written examination consists of dictation, by which the writing is also tested; two questions in arithmetic; and composition, consisting of a simple narration or letter. The girls, in addition, are examined in plain sewing by a lady appointed for the purpose. The names of candidates are concealed under a fold at the top of the page, which is not opened until the marks are assigned. The exercises are corrected during the sitting by the members of the Commission. None are admitted to the oral examination who do not obtain at least fifty per cent. of the total number of marks assigned, which is ten for each subject. One hour is allowed for the examination in arithmetic, one for composition, and one for needlework. A candidate who is assigned 0 in any of these subjects is not allowed to proceed to the oral examination. This is a public examination, and consists of reading and explanation, recitations from a list of pieces presented by the candidate; history and geography. In addition, candidates may present themselves for examination in drawing and agriculture, and if successful this is noted in the certificate. The result of

the examination is forwarded to the Academy Inspector, who awards the certificates to those who have scored at least fifty per cent. of the maximum number of marks. Only a small proportion of those on the school roll, and who are above eleven years of age, present themselves for these examinations; but there has been in recent years a steady increase in the number of candidates, and in the number of passes, as compared with those who are examined. The following table shows the progress of recent years in this respect:—

CANDIDATES.				
Years.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Passed.
1884	95,701	73,111	168,812	115,797
1887	115,412	89,683	205,095	145,134
1889	123,598	97,012	220,610	165,211

Of those who passed in 1889; 90,633 were boys, and 74,548 girls.

#### The Examinations for Certificates of Higher Primary Studies.

Every year an examination is held in each department, in a place fixed by the Minister, for the certificates of higher primary studies. *Certificats d'études*



*Primaires Supérieures.* The Commissions for holding these examinations consist of five members selected from the primary inspectors, the professors of the secondary schools and faculties, the directors, professors and masters of the normal colleges, and for girls, two lady members. The Academy Inspector is president. This certificate was instituted by the decree of the 23rd December, 1882. It is obligatory only on the State bursary-holders of the superior primary schools who have followed the entire course of instruction in these schools. No public or private establishments can receive these State exhibitioners unless they engage to present them for this examination at the end of their course. The examinations consist of written, oral, and practical tests. The written examination includes :—(1) French composition. (2) History and geography. (3) Mathematics, physical and natural sciences. (4) Geometric or ornamental drawing. Three hours are allowed for each of these subjects. The oral examination includes necessarily a modern language and agriculture or other industrial subjects, as arranged for the schools by the Departmental Councils. The practical examination includes manual work, singing, and for boys, gymnastics and military exercises. In accordance with the provisions made for imparting to these schools a practical character, and for adapting the instruction to local pursuits and industries,



special examiners may be appointed by the President of the Commission, to examine in the subjects bearing on those industries, and the examinations in science may be adapted to the course in particular schools. The Academy Inspector may, acting on the initiative of the Director or Directress of a superior primary school, form the candidates into three groups, corresponding to the agricultural, industrial, and commercial pursuits, and select for the candidates of each group a scientific examination bearing on these occupations. The same school may present pupils in all the three groups or in two only. Instructions were issued in July, 1889, in a circular to the Rectors, enjoining the examiners to avoid carefully all questions of a purely theoretic character, and to give the examinations a practical turn suited to what should be the character of the establishments. Here, as in the elementary primary schools, only a small percentage of the pupils present themselves for the examination; but here also the numbers show a steady increase. In 1884 there were 1,327 candidates, of which 556 passed; in 1887 there were 1,958, of whom 1,212 passed; in 1889 there were 2,550 candidates, of whom 1,491 passed; of these candidates, 898 were girls, of whom 531 passed.

## CHAPTER XVI.

### THE SCHOOLS IN OPERATION.

VARIOUS means are adopted in France to extend the scope and influence of the elementary school beyond the limits usually assigned to it. The State, the Departments, the Municipalities, and private individuals subscribe to a fund for aiding the children of poor parents by supplying them, gratis, with books, school requisites, &c. In many cases school books and requisites are supplied by the Municipalities, and in most cases poor children receive all school requisites free.

#### Caisses des Ecoles.

Under the provisions of the laws of 1867 and 1882 school funds called *Caisses des Ecoles* may be formed in connection with primary schools. The object of these is to encourage regular attendance and application to study by rewards, consisting of books, and *livrets* or bank-books, with 50 francs or other such sums inscribed in them, and lodged to the credit of the pupil in the *Caisse d'Epargne Scolaire*.

These funds are also employed in providing the children of indigent parents with books and school requisites, clothing, and dinners in the school. The *Caisses des Ecoles* are supplied (1) by subventions from the State, the Departments, and the Municipalities; (2) by private subscriptions, legacies, the proceeds of entertainments for the purpose, and gifts of books, stationery, clothing, and provisions. Each *Caisse des Ecoles* is administered by a Committee composed of members of the Commission Scolaire and members elected by the subscribers. They are under the presidency of the Mayor. A secretary and treasurer are elected annually, and the Committee may add any number of lady patrons. In 1890 there were 16,175 *Caisses des Ecoles* in connection with primary schools in France. The receipts for the year amounted to 5,131,792 francs, and the expenditure to 3,824,819 francs, leaving a balance of 1,306,973 francs.

#### Caisses d'Epargne Scolaire.

To encourage habits of thrift and economy, arrangements are made by which the teachers lodge in the School Savings Banks—*Caisses d'Epargne Scolaire*—small sums for their pupils. A child has, for instance, a few pence; this he hands to the teacher, and supplements from time to time. The teacher retains these sums until he has an oppor-



tunity of lodging them in the savings bank. These sums are entered in pass-books kept by the scholar, and called *livrets*. The children are encouraged in this course ; it is held a matter of importance to have a pass-book, and to endeavour to increase the amount therein. This system is worked voluntarily by the teachers ; and the Administration, with a view to encourage it, places pass-books for the scholars, gratuitously, at the disposal of the teachers, in the post-offices. To what extent this system has fostered the economic spirit which pervades the French working classes, it would be difficult to say, but of its general existence there is on all sides abundant and striking evidence. In most cases servants in the French towns and cities have during their younger years been storing up a competence which enables them to pass the evening of life in comfort and retirement. In 1890 there were 21,015 *Caisses d'Epargne Scolaire*, and the pupils had 472,229 pass-books, with a total sum invested amounting to 13,096,606 francs, or about £523,864 sterling.

#### Libraries.

There are libraries attached to a large number of French elementary schools for the use of the pupils and their parents. These contain class books and general works furnished by the Minister, works given by the Prefects and purchased by certain grants made by



the Councils-General of the Departments, by the Municipalities, and by private individuals. In order to encourage reading in their homes, the scholars are permitted to borrow works from these libraries, and this privilege, it appears, is very widely availed of. On the 1st January, 1890, there were 37,469 such libraries attached to the schools, containing 4,897,213 works. In 1889 no less than 6,064,857 loans of books were made to the pupils. There are, in addition, libraries consisting of works on the science and history of education, scholastic periodicals, and official documents. These libraries are generally situated at the schools in the chief place of the Canton. There were 2,787 libraries of this latter kind in 1890, containing 938,287 volumes.\*

#### A Small Communal School.

From the very nature of the programme and the legislation affecting the schools, we might conclude *a priori* that in the practical working of the latter there would be no great variety; and in examining the schools in various parts of France, we find a remarkable uniformity in the organization and in the proficiency exhibited in the same classes of schools. One of the primary schools in Versailles, which will

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\* There are some other interesting features of French schools which will come under the scope of our volume on Technical Instruction.

be noticed in another chapter, is a good specimen of the primary school in the French towns and cities. There is another class of schools which is to be often met with in the chief places of aristocratic communes, and slightly modified in the outlying districts of large communes, and also not unfrequently found in the less populated districts of Brittany and in some of the Departments bordering on the Vosges, the Jura, and the Alps. These are all small schools. An interesting little school of this class is that at Marnes-la-Coquette, a pretty village in the midst of the woods beyond St. Cloud. The population consists principally of wealthy merchants and other well-to-do people who do not usually send their children to the public elementary schools. There is a private girls' school in this village which is attended by all the female children; and so Monsieur Grosse, the genial master of the public school, is burdened with the care of only twenty scholars: only one of these was absent on the day that I visited the school, and he had been excused by his parents on the score of illness. There were none of the children of the higher course in this school. The specimens of the pupils' work which I saw were very fair, and notwithstanding the scanty attendance the school work seemed to go on with some spirit. The salary of the teacher is 1,500 francs annually, with a good house and garden. He, however, holds

other posts, and next to the Mayor, is perhaps the most important public functionary in the Commune. He is secretary to the Mayor, for which he receives an annual salary of 300 francs, and is, in addition, chief of the *Bureau de Bienfaisance*, for which he receives 200 francs a year, making a total of £80 a year. This municipality derives an annual income of 3,000 francs from a race-course, and this sum goes to the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* for the relief of the poor. Indigent persons who wish to avail of this charity apply to the Mayor, who satisfies himself that those making the demands are entitled to relief. *Livrets*, or books of tickets, are issued to these from the *Bureau*, for provisions, medical assistance, etc. The dealers bring the tickets to the *Bureau*, and are paid periodically. Aged persons, in addition, get grants not exceeding 50 francs to provide clothing and other necessities. The teacher is the clerk of this *Bureau*, and is thus permitted to augment his income.





## CHAPTER XVII.

### THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF PARIS.

THE primary schools of Paris are by their organization and general character by far the most interesting in France, though from an educational standpoint they possess no merits superior to those of schools in other French cities and large towns. The superior primary schools of Paris, have not all, it would seem, attained the same degree of proficiency in the character of the instruction as elsewhere. These schools, I was informed, have been recently examined, and their state of efficiency had been in some cases proved to be by no means in a satisfactory condition. While the schools in the Departments are maintained by contributions from the State, from the Departments, and from the Communes, those of Paris are maintained solely by the Municipality.

#### The Infant Schools of Paris.

The *Ecoles Maternelles*, or infant schools, in Paris, about 130 in number, are divided into three sections, and retain the children until the age of seven years, while six is the limit in the rest of France. In the first



section are children from the ages of 2 to  $3\frac{1}{2}$ , in the second, are those from  $3\frac{1}{2}$  to 5, and in the third, those from 5 to 7 years. There are about 27,000 children attending these schools; they are open from March to November, from 7 o'clock in the morning, till 7 in the evening, and during the rest of the year, from 8 till 6. The instruction, of course, is not carried on during all these hours. It continues altogether for four hours, two in the forenoon and two in the afternoon, including intermissions for recreation amounting to about three-quarters of an hour. In most of these schools there are class-rooms specially adapted to the ages and requirements of the children of each section. There is, in addition, a hall used for gymnastic exercises and for recreation in bad weather, and usually supplied with a nice lavatory in the centre. The play-grounds are in general small. They are, however, not unfrequently shaded with trees, and during the summer months they afford to the little children recreation grounds which, outside the school hours, must prove a great boon in many of the crowded quarters of Paris, where such young children could not with safety venture into the streets and public places. These schools are all in charge of mistresses, who number altogether about 450. These teachers are supplied from the Normal College of the Seine; and a large number of those in the service have obtained their certificates by examination, without

passing through a course of training. The head mistress is in all cases relieved from the charge of a class, and occupies herself solely with supervision.

There is in Paris another class of infant schools, called *Ecoles Infantines*. They are a kind of transition school between the *Ecoles Maternelles* and the primary schools. They are invariably in the charge of a mistress, and the pupils are boys from six to eight years of age. Much importance is justly attached to the character of the instruction and training given to the children at this period, and to the habits which they acquire in the schools. The gentleness and kindness of the *Ecoles Maternelles* is preserved in the *Ecoles Infantines* while the instruction is more advanced, embracing the elementary course of the primary schools. There are only about sixteen such schools in Paris, but they are amongst the best schools in the city. The discipline and organisation are admirable, and the results produced, so far as I could observe, are far superior to those produced in the lower course of the ordinary primary schools.

With regard to the character of the instruction imparted in the infant schools in Paris there is little to be said. It is pretty uniform in all the schools, and with the exception of the taste manifested in design, ornamentation, and combination of colours to produce a pleasing effect, to some extent a natural

French characteristic, these schools are in no respect superior to the infant schools in our own large towns and cities.

#### The Primary Schools of Paris.

The primary schools, which number about 370, afford accommodation for above 130,000 pupils. The number of pupils enrolled in the public primary schools in 1888 was 111,112, and, nevertheless, there were about 4,500 waiting for admission, some of whom were paid for in private schools by the municipality. The schools in some quarters were inadequate to accommodate the numbers seeking admission, while in others there was accommodation to spare. The more recently constructed schools consist of several storeys, and each establishment forms a "*Groupe Scolaire*"—a boys', a girls' and an infants' school. They usually accommodate from 300 to 400 pupils. There is in general a residence in the school for the teacher; a dining-hall for the staff; a hall used as a dining-room for the pupils, and also for music, recreation, and physical exercises; a special room for drawing; a room for manual instruction; a girls' work-room; an ante-room; a kitchen, &c. Every school in Paris has a library of, in general, from 500 to 600 volumes, including works on literature, science, law, political economy, geography, and history, works of reference, &c.



These are furnished by the City of Paris. The pupils are permitted to take home books from these libraries. In some schools there are libraries for the teachers, usually works on education ; and sometimes the teachers of an *arrondissement* establish a library of educational works for themselves. There are, I was informed, only two libraries for teachers in Paris not provided by the teachers themselves.

In the higher *cours* (for children of from 11 to 13 years of age) the boys usually attend from 8 o'clock in the morning till 5 in the afternoon, and the girls from 8.30 till 5, with the usual hour and a-half intermission from 12 to 1.30 p.m. Thursday is always a holiday. In the elementary and middle courses the pupils are at school from 8.30 a.m. to 4.30 p.m., with the usual intermission. In boys' schools the number of hours devoted weekly to instruction is  $32\frac{1}{2}$  in the elementary and middle courses, and  $37\frac{1}{2}$  in the superior course. In the girls' schools the time is the same for the two former, and 35 hours for the latter. In the elementary and middle courses  $3\frac{1}{2}$  hours are devoted weekly to drawing, singing, and manual work, 24 hours to intellectual work, and 5 to recreation ; but in the superior course  $10\frac{1}{2}$  hours are devoted weekly to drawing, singing, and manual work,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  to gymnastics, recreation, and military exercises for boys, and  $19\frac{1}{2}$  hours to intellectual instruction. In this last



*cours*, French literature takes the place of grammar, and the time devoted to drawing is increased from  $1\frac{3}{4}$  hours to 5 hours, and to manual exercises from  $1\frac{1}{4}$  to 3 hours. Singing and drawing are taught with great success in the higher course of the primary schools in Paris, and generally by special teachers. The class teacher usually gives the instruction in these subjects to the pupils in the elementary and middle courses.

I was fortunate enough to get an introduction from the Ministry of Public Instruction to M. Biétreix, Primary Inspector in the 8th and 16th *Arrondissements*. This gentleman struck me as one of the most excellent functionaries I met with in France—an ideal inspector. Prior to his promotion to Paris—which is the haven of inspectors and teachers, especially of female teachers, who are received there into good society—he had been engaged in the work of education, both in inspection and in connection with the Normal Colleges in various parts of France, and was thoroughly conversant with the working of the system and the character of the schools all over the country. In company with M. Biétreix I visited several schools in Paris. The children invariably stand up on the entrance of visitors; the boys gave the Inspector the military salute when he entered and again on his leaving the school.

## Particular Schools.

A good specimen of the better class of school in Paris is that in the *Rue de la Bienfaisance*. The building, consisting of several storeys, comprised a boys' a girls' and an infants' school. The head master, M. Drouhez, occupies himself mainly with the supervision of the classes. The hour for commencing work is half-past eight in the morning; five minutes later the door is closed, and no pupil is allowed to enter after. There were 196 boys in the school, and each *cours* was formed into two classes. The exercises of the higher class were executed with much skill and neatness; several boys recited pieces from memory without the slightest hesitation: even the little infants were equal to this ordeal. I have seen it frequently stated that many pupils remain in the French schools, after completing their thirteenth year. This is not the case. Where there are *Cours Complémentaires* a number avail themselves of the instruction afforded therein, but these *cours* are attached to a comparatively small number of schools. As a rule, the children pass from the elementary schools at the age of thirteen, some to the higher elementary schools, others to the secondary schools, but the vast majority leave school altogether, and betake themselves to one occupation or another. There were only three boys in this school above the age of thirteen. The girls' and

infants' schools are in the same building. The latter consisted of five classes, each in charge of a teacher, and all under the supervision of a directress or head mistress. There are two teachers in the infant school for sixty-five children. These schools seem to be conducted with great spirit. In the boys' school there is, in addition to the pupils' lending library of 600 volumes, one of the only two libraries for teachers in Paris, furnished by the *Caisses des Ecole* of the *arrondissement*, and comprising 450 volumes, mainly works on the science, the art, and the history of education, psychology, &c.

In the *Rue du Général Foy* there is an infants' school, with children from the ages of four to six years only. This school has a splendid hall, opening, as is usually the case, on the playground. The little pupils were engaged at drawing when we entered, and for such young children most of the work was excellent. The Directress gave a lesson in geometry. These lessons are usually given in connection with figures drawn on the blackboard. The little children readily distinguished between various figures, and understood the ordinary properties of the triangle, the square, the circle, the parallelogram, &c. Care was taken to place before the eyes of the children, not only the figures in chalk on the blackboard but, also the models.

The girls' school is a large one, having 220 on the



rolls. In one of the rooms the teacher gave a lesson on moral duties, and, in the higher division, an excellent mistress examined the girls on the duties and rights of a citizen. The girls were able to name the different administrative departments of State—Public Instruction, Fine Arts, Commerce and Industry, Finance, War, &c., and to indicate the general scope of their control; they had a fair idea of the functions of the Chamber of Deputies, of the Senate, of the President of the Republic, and of the duties and powers of the public officials, &c. The specimens of needlework which I saw in this school were amongst the best I saw in the elementary schools of France. It was, however, not of a very advanced character. The girls do not make their dresses in the school. In this school there were only four girls above the age of thirteen.

#### Medical Inspection.

Every school in Paris is inspected medically twice a month, and on other occasions as required by the Mayor of the *arrondissement*. A register is kept in the school wherein the inspector, who must hold the diploma of a doctor of medicine, records the result of his observations, and enters the names of any pupils who, owing to their state of health, he deems unfit for attendance in school. The inspection extends to everything in connection with the sanitary arrange-



ments of the school, heating, ventilation, light, and even furniture. There is, in addition, a special individual inspection of the pupils once a month, including an examination of the eyes, ears, teeth and general health. The reports are transmitted to the Mayor, who every three months forwards a report, founded on these, to the Ministry.

The Cantines Scolaires—Caisse des Ecoles.

One of the most interesting features of the schools of Paris seems to me the school kitchens, or *Cantines Scolaires*. In their ordinary educational work these schools differ little from those in the rest of France. The *Cantines Scolaires*, however, are unhappily not common appendages of the elementary schools. There is a *Caisse des Ecoles* for each *arrondissement* which administers the *Cantine Scolaire*. The *Caisse des Ecoles* is administered by a committee, which employs the fund in giving the poor children clothing, and even money, medals, prizes, and also bank-books to the best of the pupils in the school. About £20,000 is now annually expended in supplying school dinners for children; nearly all this sum is provided by the municipality. These dinners are given free to those who are unable to pay, or at a fixed rate to those who can, which is generally one penny. In some cases a dinner of meat, soup, and vegetables ranges from 1½ to 2d.

The parents whose names are inscribed in the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* can get the tickets for these dinners for their children by applying at the *Bureau*. Parents whose names are not so inscribed apply to the mayor or head teacher, and inquiry is made into their circumstances, when, if found fitting subjects, the tickets are granted. Parents who pay for the dinners purchase the tickets beforehand. There is no distinction between the free tickets and those which are paid for. The children hand these to the teacher, and no one present knows whether a child is receiving his dinner gratuitously or by payment. There is a female servant usually attached to every school. The servants purchase the provisions for these dinners under the authority of the Director and according to the wishes of the committee. Arrangements are also made to warm or cook, free of charge, any articles of food which the pupils bring with them from home. I was present at one of these dinners in a *Group Scolaire* at Passy. This *Group* includes a boys', a girls' and an infants' school. At 12 o'clock the children assembled in the large hall of each school, which is used both as a dining and recreation room. The price of the dinner in this school, to those who pay, is 1d. The majority of the children marched out and went to their homes for dinner, but a considerable number remained. These seated themselves at table. Some had brought their dinners

from home, the others handed their tickets to the head master, and the servants brought up the soup, meat, and potatoes from the kitchen. Bread was given only in the soup. The meat and potatoes, not unlike an Irish stew, were served out in nice small dishes. Several children took small bottles of *vin ordinaire* from their satchels, and the little feast went on pleasantly. When it was over the little children proceeded to the playground and enjoyed themselves until half-past one, the hour for the resumption of lessons.

When one considers the difficulty a large section of the deserving poor finds in eking out the means of existence in large cities, we cannot but admire the liberality which dispenses from 12,000 to 15,000 free dinners daily all the year round to poor children who doubtless would otherwise feel the pangs of hunger, and be a source of keen anxiety to parents struggling hard to provide the barest necessities of life.



## CHAPTER XVIII.

### THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS, AND SCHOLARS IN FRANCE IN 1889.

Primary and superior primary public				
schools	..	..	..	66,495
Primary and superior primary private				
schools	..	..	..	14,281
Infant schools (public)		..	..	2,562
do. (private)		..	..	2,596
				<hr/>
Total		..	..	85,871

#### SCHOLARS.

In the primary public schools	(boys) ..	2,418,695
do.	(girls) ..	1,960,228
In the primary private schools	(boys) ..	370,772
do.	(girls) ..	795,705
		<hr/>
Total in primary and superior primary schools	.. ..	5,545,400
		<hr/>
In the public infant schools	.. ..	445,958
Private do.	.. ..	237,210
		<hr/>
Total in infant schools	.. ..	683,168



Teachers in the primary and superior			
primary public schools .. ..			99,310
do. private „ .. ..			41,379
Mistresses in the public infant schools ..			
do. private „ ..			4,886
			3,375
<hr/>			
Total number of teachers in public and			
private schools .. ..			148,950

EXPENDITURE IN CONNECTION WITH THE PRIMARY  
SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS IN FRANCE.

The entire sum paid to the teachers of the French primary schools in 1888 was 102,608,005 francs, contributed as follows :—

By the Communes .. ..	22,213,868 francs.
By the Departments .. ..	5,080,643 „
By the State .. ..	75,313,494 „

A sum of 7,019,135 francs was paid for the rents of schools and for printing, contributed as follows :—

By the Communes .. ..	6,341,868 francs.
By the Departments .. ..	32,828 „
By the State .. ..	644,438 „

In addition, the Communes voted the following sums, which were not compulsory on them.

- (1) To supplement the salaries of  
 teachers . . . . . 9,317,104 franc .
- (2) For the support of optional  
 schools—those in Communes  
 with less than 400 inhabitants,  
 and infant schools in Com-  
 munes with less than 2,000  
 inhabitants . . . . . 586,210 ,,
- (3) For school furniture, fire, light,  
 class requisites, prizes, classes  
 for adults, &c. . . . . 31,180,770 ,,

The Departments contributed 2,979, and the State 256,690 francs to the support of the optional schools mentioned above.

The total expenditure on the primary schools and teachers was thus 150,970,894 francs, excluding the Normal Colleges, which cost above 9,000,000 francs, the inspection, administration, &c. The entire expenditure in connection with the elementary system of education in France was for 1890, about £8,000,000 sterling.

The vast majority of private schools are conducted by Religious communities. They are supported by voluntary contributions, and have increased both in numbers and in the attendance in recent years. It will be seen from the above table that more than one-

fourth of the scholars are attending the private schools. A much larger section of French parents than is generally supposed are in favour of combining religious with secular instruction in the schools, a fact which is sufficiently attested by the large and increasing number of pupils who attend the private schools, which are by no means confined to one denomination. From the fact that there are usually two or more apartments in French schools, no inconvenience could arise in connection with separate religious instruction where the public schools are attended by various denominations. In some districts of France the laws secularising the schools have not, owing to the opposition of the people, been put strictly in force. On visiting a school in Versailles I found that the laws were openly violated in the school under the eyes of the authorities ; and when I made inquiry as to the cause I was informed that there were a large number of the inhabitants of Versailles who were opposed to the secularisation of the schools, and that in deference to their view it was not carried out in that school.

A fair indication is given of the progress of education among the masses in most European countries by the illiteracy or otherwise of the "*conservits*." France has shown a marked and progressive improvement in this direction. The percentage of illiterate *conservits* in France, Prussia, Italy, Austria and Switzerland,

from 1881 to 1887, may be seen from the following table :—

Years.	France.	Prussia.	Italy.	Austria.	Switzerland.
1881	14.91	1.59	47.74	38.9	2.7
1883	12.29	1.32	47.96	32.8	2.1
1884	10.	1.27	47.22	34.7	2.2
1887	9.4	—	44.98	27.7	1.3

There are 59 Departments in France in which less than ten per cent. of the *conscrits* are illiterate : in eight of these less than two per cent. are illiterate ; and in one department, L'Herault, less than one per cent. of the *conscrits* are illiterate. It is a striking fact that, taking the departments in order according to the progress of education in each, as indicated by the per-centage of *conscrits* able to read and write, Constantine is No. 35, Algiers 79, and Oran 82.

#### Honours and Distinctions for Teachers.

The honours and distinctions awarded to teachers for efficiency in the discharge of their duties, are :— A silver medal for every 300 teachers in each Department, and one for the number remaining if above 150 ; a bronze medal for every 150 teachers ; and an 'honourable mention' for every 100 teachers in each



department. The bronze medal is awarded only to those who had obtained an 'honourable mention' at least two years previously, and a silver medal to those only who had obtained the bronze medal two years previously. Those teachers who have been awarded the silver medal receive an annual gratuity of 100 francs. In addition to these distinctions there are two others which are much coveted—" *Officier d'Académie*" and " *Officier de l'Instruction Publique*." The former is awarded only to those teachers who had obtained the silver medal at least two years before, and the latter to those only who have been for at least five years *Officier d'Académie*. These medals and distinctions are forwarded to the teachers by the Minister mostly on the 14th of July each year.



## CHAPTER XIX.

### EXAMINATION AND CLASSIFICATION OF TEACHERS.

WE have now seen the march of French elementary education from the days of the Revolution to the law of 1889, a period of one hundred years, the spasmodic efforts made from time to time to mould the system of popular instruction into something like a system, the progressive measures inaugurated by one party often reversed by the next, and finally, under the Republic, the education of the people made one of the leading questions in the legislative programme. Schools have sprung up in every Commune, and Normal Colleges in every Department; the State, the Departments, the Municipalities have subscribed liberally to their maintenance. All this is of vast importance; but is there nothing else required to complete the efficiency of the system? We think there is. We think all this legislation, all these buildings, all this money lavished on the schools and colleges will not avail to render the system an effective means of intellectual culture unless the agents who are to put the system into force are well trained and fitted for their work. Of these the first in importance are the teachers.

There is no lack of teachers in France as elsewhere at the present day, but the term "teacher" is too frequently misapplied. It is one of very wide extension, and its signification differs considerably in different countries. In France it now practically implies, though not by law, a person who passes three years in a training college, and obtains certain diplomas entitling the holder to give instruction. In other countries it implies a person who has passed the mere examination testifying that he possesses a certain degree of knowledge in certain subjects, is desirous of giving instruction in these or in any others, and sets out in the attempt.

#### The Examination System.

No one is permitted to undertake any functions in connection with the teaching in French elementary schools unless provided with a diploma of capacity for the discharge of the particular function. There are certain special qualities which the candidate teacher, inspector, or professor, should possess, and which cannot be tested by a written examination. It is quite possible that a candidate for one of these positions may appear from the results of a written examination fully qualified, and yet may be so deficient in address, so uncouth in manners, so wanting in general culture, so incapable of giving coherent expression to his ideas, that to place him in the position of teacher, as a model



for the guidance of youth, or in that of inspector, as a guide and superintendent of teachers, could only have an injurious influence on the work of education. There are many and an increasing number of persons who at the present time look on the extent to which the examination craze is pushed as detrimental to the best interests of education. The fault, however, it seems to us, lies not in the principle, but in the method of the examination. If we look on education as discharging a double function, not in imparting a certain amount of useful information alone, but in evolving the latent faculties of the mind so as to enable it to bring all its powers into play with effective concentration, there is no doubt that examinations as at present too often conducted are a very imperfect machinery for testing the value of the mental development attained in the course of instruction. This applies only to that method which we would designate the paper-test, purely written examinations. The value of such examination varies with the subject. In mathematics it holds its strongest ground; in physical science it is very much less reliable; it forms only one-half of the test which should determine one's acquaintance with a modern language. The method of written examination bears much the same relation to complete examination that an examining does to a teaching university. In France, as elsewhere, we find a cry raised against the evils of examination; some one has



jestingly said that at certain periods of the year one half of the French people are undergoing examination, and the other half engaged in examining them. The fundamental principle laid down in France requiring diplomas of capacity on the part of every functionary engaged in the work of elementary instruction, necessarily entails a wide range of examinations. These are not, however, purely paper examinations. Their character, as will appear, is well calculated to minimise any inherent evils which exist in a too extensive application of the examination system. They are, as far as I have been able to observe, well adapted to bring the best men to the front. Beyond these, professional skill and ability are the sure passports to preferment to the higher educational offices; not seniority, which, in respect of promotion, is practically disregarded in France when brought into competition with educational talent.

#### Certificates.

The certificates of capacity for primary teachers are of three grades—the Elementary Certificate (*Brevet Élémentaire*), the Superior Certificate (*Brevet Supérieur*), and a certificate of professional capacity, entitled, *Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique*. Special certificates are awarded for drawing, handicraft, singing, gymnastics, military exercises, and needlework. The Commissions for holding the examinations for the three grades of certificates are nominated annually

by the Rector. These Commissions hold two ordinary sessions every year in the chief place of each Department. The Commissions of examination for the elementary and superior certificates are composed of seven members, two of whom must be Inspectors; the others are selected from the Directors and Directresses of the Normal Colleges, of the Superior Primary, and the ordinary Primary Schools, from the Professors of the Normal Colleges, of the secondary establishments, and from the members of the private schools.

The Commissions select their own presidents and secretaries. They hold two sessions annually—one in July, the other in October. The examinations commence on the same day and proceed in the same order for all France. Candidates are admitted for the elementary certificates at the age of sixteen years. The written examination is carried on under the supervision of members of the Commission. It consists of Dictation, Writing, French Composition, and Elementary Arithmetic. The papers, when taken up from the candidates, are distributed among members of the Commission to be examined. The Commissions are formed into sub-divisions of not less than two members each for examining the written answers of the candidates, and into sub-divisions of not less than three each for the oral examination. The names of candidates are concealed in a fold at the top of the paper, which is not opened until the marks are assigned.

When the work of correction is completed the entire Commission meets and decides by vote on the candidates who are to be admitted to the second part of the examination. This consists of Freehand Drawing and Gymnastics for males; Drawing and Needlework for females. The examination in needlework takes place under the supervision of lady examiners. The Commission again decides on the candidates who, on the result of this second examination, are to be admitted to the third stage, the oral examination. This oral examination is open to the public, but in the case of girls, only females can be present. The oral examination consists of Reading, Explanation and Grammatical construction, Arithmetic, including the metric system, the history of France, Civic instruction, the Géography of France, with tracing on blackboards, Solfeggio, and the elementary principles of physical and natural science. The examination occupies at most ten minutes for each subject. The maximum number of marks assigned to the subjects in each of the above series is twenty, excepting Solfeggio and Gymnastics, in which it is ten. A candidate who is assigned nought in any of these subjects is disqualified. To be admitted from the first test to the second, the candidate must obtain at least fifty per cent. of the total number of marks; and similarly from the second to the oral test, in which fifty per cent. must also be scored to qualify for the certificate.



This certificate, which, as may be seen, attests only a somewhat limited degree of scholarship, including only the programme of the higher course in the elementary schools, entitles the holder to be appointed on probation (*stagiare*) in an elementary school.

The Superior Certificate—Brevet Supérieur.

Candidates for this certificate must be at least eighteen years of age and must have already obtained the elementary certificate. The examination is both written and oral. The written examination includes :—

(1). A paper comprising two sets of questions ; one on arithmetic, and for males, geometry ; the other on physical and natural sciences with their application to hygiene, industry, agriculture and horticulture :—

(2). French Composition.

(3). Model Drawing.

(4). Composition in a modern language with use of lexicon. Twenty marks are allowed for each of these subjects, and candidates, in order to be admitted to the oral examination, must score at least a total of thirty marks exclusive of drawing. By far the most important part of the examination for the superior certificate is the oral. The programme for this part of the examination consists of seven groups of subjects :—

(1). Education and Moral Instruction.



(2). French language, including reading and explanation, and literary history, limited to the principal authors of the 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries.

(3). Memorable epochs, prominent names, essential occurrences of general history, and of the history of France in modern times.

(4). General geography and the geography of France, with tracing on the blackboards.

(5). Arithmetic, book-keeping, and, for males only, elementary algebra, geometry, land surveying, and levelling.

(6). Physics, chemistry, natural history, and, for males, agriculture and horticulture.

(7). Translation from a book of a piece of English, German, Italian, Spanish or Arabic at the choice of the candidate. The English work for a translation has been at recent examinations, Miss Edgeworth's selected stories.

As in the examination of the elementary certificates, a candidate who is assigned nought in any one of these subjects is disqualified.

The oral examination in each of these seven groups cannot occupy more than fifteen minutes. A list of French authors is prescribed every three years, which all candidates for this certificate must have read, and in addition, each candidate must select in each of the four centuries named above two works, one in

prose and the other in verse, in which he or she will be submitted to a more searching examination.

The following is the list of authors prescribed for the three years ending 1890. It will serve to show the high literary character of this examination.

Corneille : "Nicomède," "Le Menteur."

Racine : "Britannicus," "Mithridate."

Molière : "Le Misanthrope."

La Fontaine : "Fables" (liv. VII. et XI).

Boileau : "Art Poétique."

Fénelon : "Lettre à l'Académie."

Mme. de Sévigné : "Choix de Lettres."

Voltaire : "Choix de Lettres."

Bossuet : "Sermons sur la Mort et sur la Parole de Dieu."

La Bruyère ; "Caractères" (chap. I. et V).

Pascal : "Provinciales" (lett. I., V., et XIV.) ;

"Pensées" (art i et ii). (Edition Havet).

Mme. de Maintenon : "Extraits des Lettres et Conversations."

Buffon : "Discours sur le style."

André Chénier : "L'aveugle," "La Jeune Captive," "Le Jeu de Paume," "La Jeune Tarentine," "Hymne à la Justice."

Montaigne : "Essais" (liv. I., chap. XXV.)

J. J. Rousseau : "Émile" (liv. II.)

Chateaubriand : "Les Martyrs" (liv. VI.)

Lamartine : "L'Immortalité," "Le Chêne."

Alfred de Vigny : " Moïse," " La Mort du Loup,"  
" Le Cor."

Alfred de Musset : " L'Espoir en Dieu."

Victor Hugo : " L'Enfant," " Le Livre des Mères."

Thiers : " Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire,"  
(liv. XLV.)

Michelet : " Jeanne d'Arc."

Candidates for these certificates, except the students of the training colleges, are required to pay a fee of ten francs for the examination for the elementary, and twenty francs for that for the superior certificate. With the exceptions mentioned above, the programmes are the same for males and females.

#### Certificat D'Aptitude Pédagogique.

The certificate *d'Aptitude Pédagogique* is the professional diploma of the elementary teacher, which alone entitles him to become the principal of a school. The aim of the examinations for the elementary and superior certificates is to ensure that the candidate teachers possess the requisite knowledge of the subjects which form the programmes of instruction in the various classes of primary schools. This knowledge is a *sine qua non*. It is one thing, however, to possess a sufficient knowledge of the subjects, and another to know how to teach them. Until the teacher proves his competency in this latter particular he cannot be regarded as competent to conduct a



school. Hence the institution of the *Certificat d'Aptitude*, for which a purely professional examination is required. Commissions of examination for this certificate are appointed annually by the Rector, and consist each of ten members. The Academy Inspector is president, and the remaining members are selected from the primary inspectors, directors, directresses and professors of the training colleges and the superior primary schools, and from the teachers, male and female, of the Department; when there is an inspectress of infant schools in the Department she is a member of the Commission.

Candidates for this certificate must have given at least two years' service as *Stagiaire* in a school, be provided with one of the two other certificates, and be at least twenty-one years of age.

The Commissions hold one session annually in the chief place of each Department. The examination consists of a written test, an essay or discussion on an educational theme, an examination in the practice of teaching, and an oral examination. The written examination is held in the chief place of each *arrondissement* under the supervision of the primary inspector. The examination papers are then read and marked by the full Commission in the capital of the Department. A candidate who fails to satisfy the examiners is permitted to go no further for that year. The teachers who pass this examination are then sub-



jected to a practical examination in their own schools before a sub-commission, consisting of two inspectors and a teacher nominated by the Academy Inspector. The candidate conducts the work of the school, or of his own class, for three hours, in accordance with a programme supplied to him twenty-four hours previously. The oral examination bears on the monthly programmes, on questions in connection with the subject of the written examination, on education and instruction, and on school organisation and the practice of teaching. There are thus two examinations to test the extent of the teacher's literary and scientific attainments, and when he has obtained the certificates corresponding to these his attention is directed to the principles and practice of his profession and the examination which is to test his capacity in this respect. It is in itself a sound principle to require of the teacher at an early age the full knowledge which he should possess of the subjects which he is destined to teach, and when he has satisfied the authorities on this score, to hamper him no further with the preparation for such examination, at least to any extent which may withdraw his serious attention and his best energies from the practical work of his school. The examination for the certificate *d'Aptitude Pédagogique* is a severe test, but instead of withdrawing the energies of the teacher from the instruction of a class, it, on the contrary, fixes all his energies on it. One part of

the examination is based on the practical work in which he is daily engaged, and the other, the written examination, is so framed as to require him to study carefully the principles that underlie the practice of education, and the views and maxims of the most prominent educational writers. We can form a fair idea of the turn which this written examination tends to give the mind of the young teacher, and of the influence thereby exerted on its pedagogic development, from an enumeration of some of the themes proposed to candidates in recent years. The following are a few specimens :—

(1) It has been sometimes said, to know how to question is to know how to teach; discuss the truth in this idea, and explain the method of questioning you adopt in your instruction.

(2) The importance of games in education. Develop this idea of Montaigne's: "The sports of children are not sports; they must be considered as their most serious occupation."

(3) Discuss this maxim of Fenelon: "We ought always point out to children a solid and agreeable aim to sustain them in their work." Show how the teacher can apply this maxim in his teaching.

(4) Show that reading is the most precious, the most productive, and the most varied of all the resources at the disposal of the educator.

(5) A young teacher qualified with a superior cer-

tificate, who believed that it was not necessary for him to learn more, perceived after a year engaged in a school that he had on the contrary learned much. Explain, as he would in a letter addressed to his former master, the reflections which this discovery has suggested to him.

(6) "Emulation" says Rousseau, "is in truth a dangerous disposition, but a disposition which education can transform into a sublime virtue." Explain this idea, and show how and to what degree the teacher may have recourse to emulation to ensure discipline and inspire children with a taste for study.

Since 1886, no teacher can become *titulaire* unless provided with the certificate *d'Aptitude Pédagogique*, but many teachers who have been admitted to the rank of *titulaire* are not principals, but in charge of a class. The examinations for these certificates are no easy tests. The competition for them has become very keen since the passing of the above regulation, and a large number of candidates are annually disqualified at the examinations. From 1881 till the end of 1888 about 35,000 male teachers presented themselves at the examination for the certificate *d'Aptitude Pédagogique*, of which about 17,000 passed. In the same period about 15,500 female teachers were examined, of which about 8,700 obtained certificates.



## CHAPTER XX.

### SALARIES OF TEACHERS, INSPECTORS, AND OF PROFESSORS OF THE NORMAL COLLEGES.

THE teachers are either *stagiaires* or *titulaires*. The *stagiaires*, or probationers, form a distinct class, and receive a fixed salary of 800 francs (£32) per annum with an allowance for residence. The *stagiaires* form twenty per cent. of the entire body of teachers.

The *titulaires*, for the purpose of remuneration, are divided into five classes. These classes of course have no reference to certificates, as all those teachers to be ranked as *titulaire* must have previously obtained the certificate *d'Aptitude Pédagogique*. The following table shows the classes, the proportion of the entire effective in each class, and the salaries of the teachers :—

Class	Per-centage of entire body of teachers in class.	Salaries (Males).	Salaries (Females).
5th	35	1,000 francs.	1,000 francs.
4th	25	1,200 „	1,200 „
3rd	15	1,500 „	1,400 „
2nd	5	1,800 „	1,500 „
1st		2,000 „	1,600 „



All teachers are entitled to residence or to an equivalent indemnity at the following rate:—

100 francs.	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle; font-size: 4em; line-height: 1;">}</div> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle; text-align: center;"> In places where the popula- tion is from </div> </div>	1,000 to 3,000 inhabitants
200    "		3,000 to 9,000       "
300    "		9,000 to 12,000     "
400    "		12,000 to 18,000    "
500    "		18,000 to 35,000    "
600    "		35,000 to 60,000    "
700    "		60,000 to 100,000   "
800    "		100,000 and above.

In Paris the indemnity is 2,000 francs. All teachers in charge of a school with more than two classes, and those in charge of a *Cours Complémentaire*, are entitled to an indemnity of residence at the above rates, and also to a supplemental salary of 200 francs. If there are more than four classes in a school, the teachers receive a supplementary salary of 400 francs.

Both the directors and teachers of the superior primary school are formed into five classes, the former receive salaries varying from 1,800 francs in the fifth class to 2,800 francs in the first class and the latter from 1,100 francs in the fifth, to 2,100 francs in the first class.

The principle on which the classification and the salaries attached thereto is based is that of service. It is thus provided that teachers shall in the ordinary course of events advance in salary as they advance in years. This is a wise provision, but it would of itself hold forth few inducements to and would be quite

insufficient for the encouragement of talent. The real principle of promotion in the elementary system in France is based on talent and merit, which are the only passports to the best positions. The elementary teacher in France can, at the age of twenty-one, obtain the highest diploma of his profession, and henceforward his promotion will depend on the ability he displays in the field of education, and not on the length of his service. The best men are selected for the best schools, for those schools in the towns and thriving villages with several classes, schools which bring supplementary salaries and larger indemnities for residence. The Professorships of the Normal Colleges and those of the superior primary schools are all recruited from the best elementary teachers, and the Inspectorships from the Professors, etc. There is thus a great incentive to young people, who need not look for advancement to the dim and distant future, to the evening of life, when the powers for active work must necessarily begin to fail; an incentive to throw all their energies into their work, to carefully seek out every means, and follow every direction from their superiors for the improvement of their methods, and to render their schools models of educational activity. Since the 1st January, 1890, the teachers have, under the provisions of the law of 1889, become officials of the State, and all payments are now made to them from the Treasury.

The Primary Inspectors and Inspectresses are likewise divided into five classes: the salary attaching to each class is as follows:—

5th class	3,000	francs a year.		
4th „	3,500	„ „ „		
3rd „	4,000	„ „ „		
2nd „	4,500	„ „ „		
1st „	5,000	„ „ „		

In the Department of the Seine, the salaries of the Primary Inspectors are for each of these classes respectively, 6,500, 7,000, 7,500, and 8,000 francs. In addition to these salaries, the Inspectors and Inspectresses receive an annual allowance called a Departmental Indemnity, in some cases as high as 2,000 francs. This indemnity is not obligatory on the Departments, and in some instances the Councils-General do not award it. The Professors of the Normal Colleges are paid salaries varying from 2,400 to 3,400 francs, with lodgings. The principals (male) of these institutions receive, in the fifth class, 3,500 francs, and in the first class, 5,500, with residence in both classes. Females receive 500 francs less in each class. The Professors and Directors in Paris are exceptionally treated, the salaries of the latter ranging from 7,000 to 10,000 francs for males, and 6,000 to 9,000 francs for females.

In France, the teachers, inspectors, professors, and



other functionaries of primary education are entitled to a pension from the State. They are, moreover, placed in the category of the "*Service Actif*," which enables them to retire at the age of fifty-five years after twenty years' service. Most other officials are ranked in the category of "*Services Civils*," under which they cannot retire on full pension until sixty years of age, and after a service of thirty years. Further, the pension is calculated at one fifty-fifth of the average salary and allowances for the six years at which they were highest, and for every year of service. The years for pension count from the age of twenty. In no case can the pension exceed two-thirds of the teacher's emoluments. The teacher is, no matter what his age or service, likewise entitled to a pension to the amount of one-half of his salary at the time of retirement, in case of failing health in consequence of some action arising from the exercise of his duty in the public interest, or in saving the life of a fellow-citizen, provided this does not exceed two-thirds of his average salary for the six years as above. Those who are forty-five years of age, and have given fifteen years' service, are, in case of failing health or of the abolition of office, eligible for a pension amounting to as many fiftieths of their average emoluments as they count years of service. The widow of a teacher who dies in the service and who



has qualified for pension by length of service, or who dies while holding his pension, is entitled to a third of the pension which her husband would be entitled to, provided the marriage of the parties had taken place at least six years previous to the husband's death. The pension passes to the orphans, while minors, in case of the death of both parents ; it is divided equally among them and is continued until the youngest arrives at the age twenty-one years.



## CHAPTER XXI.

### THE TRAINING OF THE TEACHER.

THE work of education is complex, and beset with difficulties. The being to whom it is imparted is himself complex, his faculties develop naturally with the growth of years, but this nursing of nature leaves the task of refining and perfecting to art, the art of education. The teacher is the master of this art. It is as indispensable for him, in order to direct the natural development of the human faculties, to understand them in their essence, manifestations, and laws, as it is for the physician to understand the organism of the human body. The properties of the mind are of a dual character. One class, revealed to us by the senses, are localised and capable of measure as to intensity. These are the physiological properties, and include all the phenomena of organic life. The other, the psychological properties, are incapable of measure, such as the faculty of memory, the judgment in its various operations, the pleasure experienced from a meritorious act, etc. These constitute the science of psychology, which, in its elementary stages at least, should be included in the professional

training of the teacher. There is unfortunately a tendency to still regard the qualifications necessary for the teacher in much the same light as Harbanns Maurus, who holds the proud title of "*Primus Præceptor Germaniæ*," and who deemed wide culture, exalted character, and sound learning as the only qualifications necessary for the monk to fill the office of teacher.\*

These are necessary qualifications, but they by no means are the only necessary qualifications. The training of the teacher in those countries where the most brilliant results have been achieved in the field of popular education is no longer confined to imparting a sound knowledge of the subjects intended to be taught. The method to be pursued so as to afford the best intellectual culture to the pupils is held equally essential, and awarded a prominent place in the curriculum. This involves a study of the science of education, embracing an analysis of the human mind, its growth and development, and the history of education.

#### Evil Effects of Unskilful Teaching.

It is an unfortunate circumstance that it is so often taken as an accepted truth that if a teacher possesses a knowledge of his subject he will soon find out for

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\* "*Scienciæ plenitudinem et vitæ rectitudinem et eruditionis perfectionem.*"

himself by experience the best method of teaching it. This is the principle that is acted upon in sending into schools unskilled and untrained teachers, well equipped as far as a knowledge of the subjects to be taught is concerned, but with no idea of organization, method, or the principles on which the most approved methods are founded. This seems to imply that all young men and women with a sound knowledge of the subjects to be taught in a school will with experience find out the best methods for themselves. How long this will take, even assuming that so desirable a result can in general be attained, and what has been the result of the tentative processes on the pupils who may have passed their entire school life under such imperfect tuition—all this is entirely disregarded. "If," says Plato, "a man practises a trade without knowing it, if he makes you ill-fitting shoes, you do not suffer considerable loss thereby; but that the teacher of your sons should be teachers only in name, do you not observe that they draw your family towards ruin, and that on them alone depend your consolation and your happiness." The unskilled teacher does not proceed by a well-defined course, and the instruction which is not so carried on must be an imperfect means for developing the intelligence. A certain amount of valuable information can, no doubt, be imparted, and in so far as this serves any useful purpose, so well; but the training of the faculties must necessarily



be defective. A mind trained under such imperfect tuition can never, no matter how naturally strong, reach the full vigour of its power. The maxim that a teacher "*nascitur non fit*" is a very convenient one for glossing over this pernicious practice. Natural talent requires direction and development. Pestalozzi, one of the greatest of modern teachers, acknowledged, with bitter regret, the tardiness with which he recognised the defects of his earlier methods, and the consequent evil effects to the pupils who had passed through his hands and the hands of his followers. If this master-mind, gifted with a love of teaching and an ardent desire to improve the system of his country, required instruction and direction to bring to perfect fruition its natural powers, how much more necessary is it to provide guidance for the ordinary young teacher, too frequently actuated in the selection of his profession by no other motive than that of interest and convenience. Beyond the purely professional training, there is another which should enter into the college curriculum, and which is intended to guide the teacher in his own conduct as such, and demonstrate the part he should play in the school, and out of the school as a member of the society in which he lives. These regulations of conduct should be inculcated in the Normal College. It is there that the teacher's character should be formed, that he should be impressed with the responsibility and dignity of

## CHAPTER XXII.

### THE NORMAL TRAINING COLLEGES IN FRANCE.

THE Normal College for the training of elementary teachers is not an institution of recent growth on the Continent. The necessity for special training was recognised in France and Germany from the fifteenth century. The institutions had their origin in the teaching religious communities, and sprang up with the *renaissance*. These bodies frequently formed classes in connection with their educational establishments for the training of teachers. The works which were issued for use in these classes contain many sound precepts on the science and practice of education. In 1685, the Abbé de la Salle founded at Rhèims a seminary for elementary teachers. This worthy man devoted his life and energy to the laudable object of educating the poor, and with this view founded the *Institut des Frères des Ecoles Chrétiennes*. On the organization of the Imperial University of France, in 1808, Napoleon established his Normal College for training teachers and professors for the secondary schools; an institution destined to a glorious future, which still exists under the title of "*L'Ecole Normale*."

At the same time, in accordance with the statutes of the University, normal classes were to be formed in connection with the *Lycées*, to train primary teachers in the art of teaching, in reading, writing and calculations, the subjects which constituted the programme of the "*petites Ecoles*" under the First Empire. This attempt was not successful, but training colleges for primary teachers sprang gradually into existence. The first was founded by a Prefect in Strasburg, in 1810. Under the Restoration they continued to increase in number, and we find in a report presented by Guizot to the king, in 1833, that there were more than thirty such institutions in France. Even at this period the professional training of the teacher was understood to imply something more than merely literary and scientific instruction, though, owing to the illiterate character of the young students, it was found necessary to devote by far the greater part of the course to imparting a knowledge of the subjects which they were intended to teach in the elementary schools. The regulation of 1832 laid down that the candidates were to be exercised in the methods of teaching in one or several primary classes, annexed to the Normal Colleges. The Government of 1850 looked with no small distrust on these institutions, probably as tending to spread too much enlightenment among the masses. To suppress them altogether would have been too bold a stroke; the programmes



were therefore curtailed, and the course on the method of teaching and on education was suppressed. As a result of this retrograde policy many training colleges were compelled to close their halls. The efficiency of the Normal Colleges was thus much impaired during the greater part of the Third Empire, until M. Duruy assumed the Ministry of Public Instruction. This new Minister was filled with ardour in the field of educational reform. In 1864 he instituted the "*Conférences de sortie sur la mission et les devoirs de l'Instituteur.*" Two years later regular lectures on the science of education and the methods of teaching were substituted for these conferences. The heads of the Normal Colleges were at the same time ordered to draw from the programmes recently framed for the special secondary instruction. Little more was done to promote the efficiency of the institutions until 1880.

#### The Principals and Professors.

The Training Colleges should be the main spring of the life and energy which the primary teachers should infuse into the work of the schools. It is in them that the teachers should seek for the best instruction, the best precepts, the professional culture, which the genius, the talent, and experience of the best educationists can afford. It is then evident that the directors and professors of the Normal Colleges should



be not only men of high literary and scientific attainments, but that they should be supremely skilled in the science of education and in the art of imparting knowledge. In France these officers, like all others in the elementary education system, are selected solely on the ground of aptitude and merit, independent of seniority. They are those who have shown themselves both in scholarship and professional capacity superior to their fellows, and capable of developing, on opportunity, those higher educational powers essential to persons aspiring to discharge functions of such vast importance as are those of forming the mind and shaping the professional career of the men and women who, in their turn, are destined to direct the thought and shape the career of the young generation. The students on entering the colleges are generally crude and unsocial. If the college is an efficient institution the young teacher ought to pass out from it a new man. The scholarship to be imparted is not always the most difficult task in training. It can, however, by no means be overlooked or minimised; on the contrary, it must form the basis of the instruction and of the programme; and if the programme be judiciously selected, and the lectures carefully adapted thereto, and graduated to suit the onward march of the young teacher in his studies, the literary instruction may be made to exert a powerful influence in forming the pro-

fessional character of the teacher as well as a means of intellectual culture. It is essential that the love of study and reading should be inculcated. This, if well directed, begets habits of reflection, and tends to that dignified turn of mind which should distinguish the man who aspires at higher educational attainments than those of the persons around him, and with whom he is daily, in the ordinary course of affairs, brought into contact. The teacher, especially in rural districts, is so circumstanced that those who are entrusted with his professional training should understand what these circumstances are, how the teacher should comport himself, how the unlearned and badly trained teacher is likely to do so, and should endeavour to adapt the means to the end. We are all familiar with the pedantic air the teacher too often assumes. The more unlearned he is the more necessary he thinks it is for him to appear learned. In the effort he is bombastic and ridiculous, and instead of palming himself off as a superior man, he only succeeds in making himself appear inferior to what he is. Had these airs been assumed only outside the school, the effects would not be so pernicious; but they are invariably carried into the ordinary teaching, and betray the teacher into wild extravagance. Such a teacher is every moment rambling away from the subject in hands, into paths suggested by something that turns up in the course

of the lesson, often by an observation of a pupil; he is eternally on the look-out for an opportunity, to air his learning and gratify his own vanity by exciting astonishment, and appearing profoundly learned in a wide range of knowledge before his scholars. He has no idea of system and method, of giving each subject its proper attention; he knows not when or where to end his remarks; and above all, the last idea that enters into his head is to aim at simplicity of treatment, or simplicity of language in his explanations and discourse. The characteristics here described will invariably distinguish the unlearned teacher, as they will always be foreign to the methods of the well-trained teacher, who is not only possessed of sound scholarship, but is familiar with the principles that underlie his profession. He is always master of that easy simplicity, both of treatment and language, which alone is capable of exciting the interest and fixing the attention of the pupils.





## CHAPTER XXIII.

### THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE COLLEGES.

EVERY Department in France has a Normal Training College for male and one for female teachers, for the various classes of elementary schools. They are under the direction of a Director or Directress and Council of Professors. These establishments are subject to the Rector of the Academy in which they are situated, acting under the direction and authority of the Minister of Public Instruction. They are under the immediate supervision of a Council of Administration, nominated for three years, and consisting of the Inspector of the Academy and six members appointed by the Rector, two of whom are Councillors-General of the Department. The Director is present and takes part in the proceedings of the Council, unless when the questions under consideration refer to the accounts of the establishment. The Council of Administration takes cognizance of the internal arrangements, as ordered by the Director and Council of Professors; regulates, subject to the Minister, all questions relative to the dietary and maintenance of the students, examines the accounts,



prepares the annual budget, and, in general, watches over the material interests of the establishment. If the College counts more than sixty students, there are, besides the Director and Bursar, five Professors, two for letters and three for science and manual instruction; with less than sixty, four professors, two for each set of subjects. A special artisan may be appointed in every College to assist the Professor of Manual Instruction.

#### Entrance to the College.

Every year the Minister of Public Instruction, on the proposal of the Rector, and after reference to the Departmental Council, fixes the number of students to be admitted to the College of the Department for the first year of training. Every candidate must have already obtained the elementary certificate, must be at least sixteen years of age on the 1st October of the year in which he presents himself, and must be not more than eighteen. Careful inquiry is made by the Academy Inspector as to the antecedents and character of the candidate, and a month prior to the date fixed for the examination, he embodies the result of his inquiries in a report on the merits of each candidate, addressed to the Rector of the Academy, who draws up in accordance with this the list of candidates who are to be permitted to compete. The examination is conducted by a commission nominated by the

Rector. The Inspector of the Academy is the president of this commission, which must include the Director of the College, the Professors, and one or more of the Primary Inspectors. The candidates are selected in the order of merit, as determined by the examination. Vacancies occurring afterwards are filled up from a supplemental list, also drawn up in the order of merit. The course of training extends over three years. On entrance, every student must sign an agreement to give ten years' service in the Department of Public Instruction. The time spent in the College counts to this effect from the age of eighteen for men and seventeen for women. Every teacher who fails in this respect, as well as every student who leaves the College without completing his course, or is expelled therefrom, is required to refund the sum expended by the College on his board, etc. This condition, however, is not strictly enforced. In the month of August every year, the Rector, on the recommendation of the Director and Professors, which is based on the result of the sessional examination, as well as on the general qualities displayed by the individual students during the year, decides on the students who are permitted to continue their course and pass from the first to the second or from the second to the third year's course. In case of a serious or long-continued illness a student may be permitted to remain in any year's course for

a second year, thus extending his stay in the College to four years. Every student must be presented at the examination for the *Brevet Supérieur* at the end of his course of training; and those who fail are not thus rendered ineligible for an appointment in a school.

#### Discipline.

The young teachers are treated with much consideration and kindness in the Normal Colleges. They are at the same time subjected to firm discipline. Breaches of this, and faults of various other kinds are punished with (1) deprivation of recreation outside the College; (2) caution pronounced by the Director; (3) reprimand in presence of the class, pronounced according to the gravity of the offence by the Director or Academy Inspector; (4) temporary exclusion, not exceeding fifteen days, pronounced by the Rector on the report of the Inspector and the advice of the Council of Administration; or, (5) final expulsion, pronounced by the Minister of Public Instruction. Any student guilty of a serious offence may be sent at once to his home by the Director, who must in that case inform the Academy Inspector of the fact; and the latter lays the matter before the Council of Administration.

The students on leaving the College are placed on the list of teachers eligible for appointment within



the Department, and receive in the order of merit the appointments as they fall vacant. All are generally provided for within the scholastic year following the completion of their training. The names of any who at the end of the year have not received appointments are sent to the Ministry with a view of being transferred to other Departments where vacancies may exist. It is not necessary in France to be trained in order to become a teacher. The Colleges, however, are at present capable of training all the teachers for the requirements of the service, and practically no new teachers are now appointed unless after passing through a Training College.





## CHAPTER XXIV

### A TRAINING COLLEGE IN OPERATION.—THE NORMAL COLLEGE OF VERSAILLES.

A TRAINING College for males and one for females have been established in every Department. This project was put into force rather hastily. It is the result of the spirit of activity and progress in the field of popular education which animated the French people after the disaster of 1870-71. In many Departments the number of teachers required annually to fill up the vacancies in the elementary teaching staff is not such as to require a special male and female Training College, even to say nothing of the expenditure in connection with the maintenance of so many institutions, each having only a small class of students. The same life, energy, and educational spirit could not readily be infused into the working of a college with thirty or forty students as into a larger institution. A process of amalgamation has already set in, and in a few years it is probable the number of training colleges will be considerably reduced, with the result that with a reduction of the expenditure there will be greater

efficiency. The programme of instruction in the training colleges is the same for all France, omitting the Superior Training Colleges of St. Cloud and Fontenay-aux-Roses.

The Male Normal College of Versailles.

A good specimen of these institutions is the Male Training College for the Department of *Seine-et-Oise*, which forms a complete circle round the Department of the *Seine*. This College is situated in the suburbs of Versailles, in the *Boulevard de Lesseps*. It is a fine building, erected by the Department. When I visited it quite recently there were seventy-five students in residence. Twenty-five new students are admitted annually. The competition was rather keen for these places prior to the passing of the Military Law of 1889. Until then teachers were exempted from military service, but now all French citizens are required to serve. Teachers, however, give one year's service only instead of three, as for ordinary citizens. One student was called away from the Versailles College during the present year to undergo his year's training in the army, which must be completed before attaining the age of twenty-one. He can return to the College on the expiration of his year's service, and complete his course of training as an elementary teacher. The withdrawal of the privilege of exemption from

teachers had the effect, it seems, of considerably reducing the numbers seeking admission to the Training Colleges. In Versailles, previous to the passing of the Military Law, about eighty used to compete for the twenty-five vacancies. In 1890 only twenty-six competed, but the number has risen to thirty-six for the present year.

The first object that attracts attention on entering the College is the long line of rifles hung up on the walls of one of the corridors. These are for the use of the students, who, while in the institution, are trained to military exercises, and are already well drilled soldiers before they join the colours for their year's service. In another, the principal corridor, there are blackboards lining the walls, which the students use in studying the subjects for the professors.

The lecture-rooms are small, suited to the classes; they are very neatly furnished, provided with a rostrum for the professor, and with small desks, rising like a gallery, to accommodate the students, and the walls are supplied with blackboards for demonstrations, etc. Lecturing in these colleges is by no means the continuous address which lectures too frequently are. It is teaching; and judged by what I have seen at Versailles—which, however, is somewhat better than I saw elsewhere—it is teaching of a high order, in which the student himself is made



to play, at times, the part of instructor. I was much interested by the lectures on history and geography. A student had prepared a lecture on the Constituent Assembly. He took the Professor's chair at the rostrum, and delivered his lecture to the class in the presence of the Professor and the Director. He discussed the work of the Assembly; the state in which it had found the administration; what it effected of reformation, and endeavoured to effect; and he touched on various questions which are too frequently excluded from the scope of the teacher of history. The Professor, from time to time, directed the student to apply himself to one phase or another of questions which he had just discussed. When he had concluded his address, which lasted twenty minutes, some of his fellows were called upon to criticise his treatment of the subject, and the student was called again to reply to those remarks, as well as to further develop points suggested by the Professor. Here I found history really taught—history, as unfolding the social condition, the life, the progress of a people, as distinct from mere collections of dates and unconnected facts.

The instruction in geography is usually given in connection with the blackboard. A student was called upon to trace an outline map of the Balkan peninsula on the blackboard, and give a general sketch of its conformation. A second took up the



course of the Danube and its tributaries, marking the principal towns upon them, with their manufactures, &c. A third traced the boundaries of the divisions of the peninsula, giving the natural productions, the manufactures peculiar to the various towns, their trade and commerce—especially that with France—the means of transit, the railway system, &c. The lesson had been prepared by all the students.

The Forge, Wood-Workshop, and Chemical  
Laboratory.

All the students go through a course of workshop instruction. The forge, the workshop, and the chemical laboratory form a dependence at the further end of the recreation-ground. These rooms are well furnished with blackboards fixed on the wall. The forge is fitted with no less than sixteen vices, a fire-place and bellows, and a good supply of the tools used in any ordinary forge. Practical workmen, called *Maitres d'Ateliers* are frequently employed to assist in the practical instruction in these workshops. The wood workshop is very well stocked with tools and materials. Here, as in the forge, the objects to be made by the class are drawn on a blackboard at times by the Professor and sometimes by the students, and the class makes the particular object from the chalk-line model. When the students,

after some practice, get expert at the work, they set about making various articles, and on leaving the College, bring away with them for models in their schools a collection of objects made by themselves. I have seen some of these unfinished collections, and in workmanship, they were excellent. There were various models in plaster from which the students in the more advanced stages made the corresponding figures in wood. The handicraft instruction seemed to be regarded as of great importance, not as a mere accessory, but as a leading subject of the curriculum. It is, besides, a means of preventing over-pressure in the studies. The chemical laboratory is well filled with all the appliances for the analyses and experiments to the extent laid down in the programmes. The students in this laboratory are invariably under the direction of a Professor, and the entire class are usually employed at the same experiment. The Professor proposes, for instance, a certain quantity of a certain substance for analysis ; all set to work at this simultaneously. They are at liberty to ask explanations of difficulties, and the Professor, when the time allowed for the experiment has expired, questions them on the result. On one of the days I spent at Versailles, the subjects for analyses were thirty grammes of rain-water and thirty of cream of tartar.

#### The Garden.

An interesting appendage to the College is the kitchen and fruit-garden. It is not large, but is of sufficient size to demonstrate to the students the most approved system of cottage gardening and the cultivation of fruit trees and vines; a regular gardener is employed. The garden presented a very nice appearance when I visited it, and was well stocked with apple-trees, pear-trees, peach-trees, vines, strawberries, cherries, and vegetables. The products of the garden are consumed in the College.

#### The Library.

The library consists of a section composed of works for use in the classes, all treating of the subjects of the curriculum, and of a general collection. The library is furnished and augmented from two sources: (1) from the Minister of Public Instruction, who sends annually a gift of the most recent works and editions to all the Training Colleges in France; and (2) from students who have passed through the College. These students form the *Société Amicale des anciens élèves de l'Ecole Normale de Versailles*, and subscribe each one franc annually towards the Library Fund. This is invested, and the annual income arising therefrom is at present in this College 1,000 francs, or about £40. This money is employed in



purchasing books for the library, and every book so purchased is marked with the name of the society. The library is tastefully fitted and arranged into sections, comprising, in addition to the section for class use, the following :—(1) Literature ; French, German, and English works ; this section contain a valuable selection from the Students' Society of translations from the ancient classics ; (2) Geography and History ; (3) Voyages and Atlases ; (4) Agriculture, the fine and Industrial Arts ; (5) Science and Mathematics ; (6) Education and Philosophy. There is a fine collection of engravings from the old masters, prepared specially by direction of the Ministry for the Training Colleges. A similar set is furnished to every Training College in France, and specimens of the works of the students which were sent to the Exhibition of 1889 are shown in the library. The general arrangements of the College are excellent. There are two large tastefully fitted lavatories, an infirmary, isolation room, refectory, etc., all models of cleanliness and order.

#### The Practising School.

One of the primary schools of Versailles is used as a practising school for the College. This school is about a mile distant from the College, in the heart of the town. It is very nicely furnished, and well



supplied with requisites, all liberally given by the municipal council of Versailles. The head master of this school is relieved from teaching a class. He is the instructor of the students in the method of teaching. The students who are to practise in the school on any particular day are told the preceding day the lessons which they are to note and prepare, and they proceed to the school at half-past seven in the morning, an hour prior to the entrance of the pupils. The master then discusses the lesson, and the treatment of the subject, and the students afterwards give the lesson to a class in his presence. There is no standing draft teaching in French schools. The children are always seated. In this school there are several classes each occupying a separate room under the Direction of a teacher. The Director afforded me every facility to observe the working of the school and the character of the work done by the pupils. This was in every respect admirable. The written exercises, the drawing, writing, &c., were excellent. The work of the pupils in each course showed a remarkable degree of uniformity. I found on entering a room in which the children of the elementary course were engaged, a number of questions on the reign of Louis XIV. written on the blackboard, and the little scholars busily engaged in answering them on paper. I looked very carefully at the answers, and was very much struck with their

historical accuracy, with the grammatical correctness of the answers, and with the neatness of the writing. The work of the school was carried on with great spirit; the Director seemed to be exceedingly well fitted for his post of conducting a school as a model for the young students who are to become the future teachers of the Department of *Seine-et-Oise*, and directing them in the practice of teaching. Any young student possessed of an average intelligence and reasonable aptitude for conveying information should, at the end of his training, leave the College not only a good scholar, but an efficient, practical teacher.

On the morning that I visited this school a student had just commenced a lesson on the French railway system to the pupils of the superior course, under the direction of the Director and the teacher of this class. The student had drawn an outline map of France on a large blackboard which runs across the wall at the head of the room. On this he traced before the pupils the great lines that diverged from Paris, marking the principal towns through which they passed, and then took up the branch lines. The pupils were questioned at the end of the lesson as to the means of communication by rail between different towns in France. The instruction in geography in the French elementary schools is almost invariably given with the aid of the blackboard. Little attention

is paid to dry statistics, but rather to the general character of the countries, their trade, commerce, productions, approaches, communication, and commercial relations with France and her dependencies.



## CHAPTER XXV.

### THE APPOINTMENT OF PROFESSORS AND INSPECTORS.

IT was in 1880 that the French Republic began seriously the work of recasting the National system of education, and from this dates the special examination for the Professorships of the Normal Colleges. The essential condition which all must have complied with in seeking admission to these examinations, is that of professional experience. Candidates must have served as teachers for at least two years in a public or private school, and must have already obtained either the superior certificate or one of the *baccalauréats*, or in case of females, the diploma "*de fin d'études*," of secondary instruction. The examinations are of two classes, one for literature, and one for science; candidates selecting the one or the other according as they intend to devote themselves to literature or science. These examinations are written, oral, and practical. Two Commissions, one for Science, the other for Literature, are nominated annually by the Minister of Public Instruction to conduct these examinations. Each Commission comprises five members, and to these are added for the examination of the female candidates two Directresses



or Professors (female) of the Normal Colleges or Superior Primary Schools. The written examination is held at the chief place in each Department, under the superintendence of the Academy Inspector. The exercises of the candidate are transmitted to Paris, and the Commissions having examined them, decide on the candidates who are to be admitted to the oral and practical examinations, which are held in Paris. The written examination for candidates in Literature consists of: (1) French Literature; (2) History and Geography; (3) Psychology as applied to education (4) English or German; and for those in Science: (1) Mathematics; (2) Physics or Chemistry and Natural Science; (3) Geometric and Ornamental Drawing; (4) Psychology as applied to education. The oral and practical examination consists, for candidates in Literature, of: (1) a lecture to be given on a subject drawn by lot; three hours preparation are allowed for this in a room with closed doors, with only the aid of a dictionary; (2) explanation of a passage from a French classic; (3) the correction of the exercise of a student in a Training College. In each of these two last, three-quarters of an hour's preparation are allowed. (4) Explanation of an English or German text, followed by conversation and questions on Grammar. The oral and practical examination for candidates in Science consists of: (1) a lecture on a subject drawn by lot in Mathematics, and one in Physical and

Natural Sciences, for which two and three hours' preparation, respectively, are allowed; (2) Questions on other subjects of the programme of a Normal College, including the correction of a student's exercise; (3) a practical demonstration in Natural History and in Physics or Chemistry.

A list of the English and German authors and of the French classics for this examination is drawn up every three years by the Minister of Public Instruction. The following was the list for the three years ending with 1890 :—

*French Language*.—Corneille : "Polyeucte," "Rodrigue," "Le Menteur."

Racine : "Andromaque," "Britannicus," "Les Plaideurs."

Molière : "Les Précieuses Ridicules," "Le Misanthrope," "Les Femmes Savantes."

La Fontaine : "Fables," Livres X. et XI.

Boileau : "L'Art Poétique."

Montaigne : "Essais," Liv. I, chap. xxv. et xxvii.;  
"Lettre sur la Mort de La Boétie."

Pascal : "Lettres à un Provincial," i., iv., xiii.

La Bruyère : "Caractères," chap. i. : "Des Ouvrages de l'Esprit"; et chap. v. : "De la Société et de la Conversation."

Bossuet : "Oraisons Funèbres d'Henriette de France, d'Henriette d'Angleterre et du Prince de Condé," "Sermon sur la Mort."

Fénelon : "Lettres sur les Occupations de l'Académie Française" ; "Dialogues sur l'Eloquence."

Mme. de Sévigné : "Choix de Lettres."

Mme. de Maintenon : "Extraits de ses Lettres, Avis, Entretiens, Conversations et Proverbes sur l'Education."

Voltaire : "Choix de Lettres," "Siècle de Louis XIV." (chapitre xxxii.).

Buffon : "Discours sur le Style."

*English Language*.—Nelson's "Fourth Royal Reader."

*German Language*.—"Der Schweizerische Bildungsfreund" (les cent premières pages) de Thomas Scherr, 9<sup>e</sup> édition, revue par Geilfuse.

The authorities have for a long time shown themselves anxious to render the staffs of the Colleges, which are composed of the Director or Directress and Professors, capable of giving instruction in all the subjects of the programme, and thus to dispense with the services of extern teachers for drawing, singing, handicraft, gymnastics, and modern languages. The Professors are paid a fixed salary according to grade. It was represented that it would tend to the advantage of the Normal Colleges to encourage the Professors to render themselves able to give instruction on the above subjects by awarding extra remuneration for the teaching of these subjects. The fundamental principle that every person aspiring to give instruction on any subject should first qualify



by a corresponding diploma was not to be departed from. Hence the Professors were required to qualify for diplomas in these subjects before being permitted to teach them in the Colleges.

The French Government, since 1880, has shown a praiseworthy and magnanimous liberality in affording means of advancement to the teachers, and to those other officers of primary instruction who are marked out by their talent and professional skill as capable of filling, to the advantage of the public service, the higher offices of the educational department. No ill-judged, repressive measures, based on public economy, are permitted to mar the progress of such men. The French authorities are laudably liberal, without being extravagant, in training the teachers, professors, etc., of primary instruction, recognising that it is on these that the greatest interests devolve, and that unless they are efficient it is vain to look for results in the domain of primary education. A Ministerial circular was addressed to the Rectors of the Academies in 1884, on the subject of affording facilities to the Professors of the Normal Colleges to obtain the diploma for teaching one or another of the above-named special subjects. "Some of your colleagues," said the Minister, "have consulted me on this question: ought the Professors of the Normal Colleges to be encouraged to undertake, for a supplementary remuneration, the teaching of the accessory



subjects for which the Colleges are too often obliged to resort to extern teachers. I am of opinion that they ought to be so encouraged, and that they should have the preference; but on an express condition—namely, that they shall show themselves at least as competent as the extern teachers, and that they shall possess the special diplomas required for the teaching of these subjects. This principle having been complied with, I shall see with pleasure our professors, especially the younger, apply themselves to extend their knowledge to join to their diplomas of science and literature, certificates of capacity to teach modern languages, gymnastics, handicraft, drawing, and music, in an examination which I propose to have from this year added to the session of examination for the professorate. If some of the candidates, deemed the most meritorious, seem to you to have need of special facilities in order to prepare for the examination for diplomas on these subjects, such as a Bursary, to dwell for some time in a foreign country to study the language, admission to the normal session at Easter for drawing, etc., you may be assured, Mr. Rector, that the Administration will study your proposition with the most anxious desire to give it the most favourable reply."

What an example there is here for imitation. There are professors not very far removed from the shores of France, who, if they asked for scholarships

of £100 a year to enable them to reside for a year or two in a foreign country in order to learn the language with a view of teaching it in a training college afterwards, would likely be subjected to a medical examination as probable subjects for a lunatic asylum ; and yet such a grant, though benefiting the individual, would benefit the State far more. An Englishman, for instance, who has resided in France or Germany, and has mastered the language of these countries, is a more capable teacher of these languages to English-speaking people than a native Frenchman or German ; and so it is with these Frenchmen who become State exhibitors, and spend a year or two in England or Germany or both. They return to their own country, and make excellent teachers of English and German. I have met many of these gentlemen who are masters of the English language, and well read in English literature. In addition to this advantage, there is another, and one by no means to be ignored. These young professors become, during their residence in foreign countries, thoroughly familiar with all that is done in the schools, and are not slow to detect both what is deserving of imitation and what is defective. They bring the reports of these schools back to their own authorities, and thus import the experience of other peoples to France. A return which would give the number of French, German,

and Italian teachers imported from those countries to teach their languages in the schools of Great Britain and Ireland, and the amount paid to these annually, would be very interesting. Whilst, of course, no personal objection can be lodged against these teachers, nevertheless, we should much prefer to see their positions filled by our own countrymen, and we should like to see some means adopted, similar to the French system, of sending a number of professors of our training colleges and other teachers to foreign countries, with a view of teaching the languages of these countries in our colleges and schools on their return. There is a struggle—an honourable and praiseworthy struggle—among the nations for intellectual superiority; and questions bearing on this struggle must be treated from a national standpoint. We shall not, therefore, be taken as casting any imputations on the foreign teachers now following their profession in Great Britain and Ireland when we recommend the system adopted by our French neighbours in regard to the teaching of foreign languages in France.

The facilities afforded by the French Government to the Professors of the Training Colleges to qualify for giving instruction in special subjects was eagerly availed of. The staffs of the colleges earnestly betook themselves to study for the diplomas; and the result of their teaching in modern languages, manual



instruction, drawing, singing, and gymnastics has been a great success. In addition to their fixed salaries, the Professors who have qualified for giving instruction in special subjects receive the following supplementary salaries. A Professor, as a rule, takes only one of these subjects—

A Modern Language. .	..	300 francs.
Manual Instruction (Males)	..	300 „
Manual Instruction (Females)	..	150 „
Drawing	..	300 „
Music	..	200 „
Gymnastics	..	100 „

#### The Inspectors.

A Royal Ordinance of 1835 decreed that there should be a Primary Inspector for every Department. These were selected from the Professors of the Royal and Communal Colleges; and also, according to the provisions of the Ordinance, from “the most distinguished teachers.” The Inspectors were, however, for the most part selected from the Professors of the Colleges; and though so far as scholarship was concerned these men were fully equal to the requirements, yet in the principles of organization and in practical teaching they were inferior to the teachers; and since part of their functions consists in giving counsel and direction to teachers in the art of teaching and the best methods of conducting their schools, it was



felt that it was not only an anomaly, but a practice fraught with danger to the primary schools, to continue to place these schools and their teachers under the direction of such men, however learned.\*

The French are not quite so illogical as to continue to place Inspectors in authority over the teachers to direct them in their duties, who were not familiar with the practical details of these duties themselves. It would be something similar to entrusting the command of a regiment to an officer who should look to the sergeants for guidance in the practical details of drill, and in military movements. Accordingly, as early as 1845, it was enacted that a third of the Inspectorships should be given to the teachers, a third to the members of the *Comité d'Arrondissement*, and a third to the regents or principals of the Colleges. It was at the same time enacted that candidates should be, at least, twenty-five years of age, and undergo, previous to appointment, an examination in the practice of teaching, and in the especial methods of instruction suited to

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\* La plupart des inspecteurs se recrutèrent parmi les professeurs de collèges. Mais n'yant pas eux-mêmes dirigé des écoles, ils ne connaissaient pas assez les besoins de l'enseignement primaire, en ignoraient l'organisation pédagogique et les méthodes, et n'avaient pas assez d'autorité pour donner des conseils aux instituteurs.—M. G. JOST, Inspecteur-Général de l'Instruction Publique.

infants, elementary primary, superior primary, and technical schools. This was for the time a sound and practical step in advance, but it was soon felt that it did not proceed far enough; and in 1850, when the tendency was to curtail the programme and scope of the primary schools, it was recognised that the Inspectorate should be composed not of mere examining machines, but of men with practical experience of teaching; and hence, amongst other provisions, it was decreed that candidates for the position of primary inspectors should have given two years' service in the discharge of some educational function, and that they should possess the superior certificate (*brevet supérieure*) for the diploma of *Bachelier ès Lettres*. The examinations included principally a report on a school, and an oral examination on the methods of instruction, the duties of a teacher, and the educational laws. It will thus be observed that from the foundation of the Inspectorships the Primary Inspectors in France were intended to be not merely examiners, but a directing and educating authority; that when it was observed that the regulations which governed the earlier appointments did not secure practical men conversant with the principles of education and with the art of teaching, men superior in teaching capacity to the teachers under their charge, not only knowing how the school should be conducted, but also able themselves to conduct it

officially, the regulations were altered, so as to exclude all who were deficient in these respects; and as early as 1850 we find two years' educational experience a *sine qua non* for candidates aspiring to the Inspectorate.

How the Inspectors are Appointed at the present time.

Since 1890 the following candidates only are eligible for the Inspectorships:—(1) Professors of Normal Colleges who had given five years' service prior to the 1st September, 1890; (2) Principal Teachers of Primary Schools who had given a similar service, and in addition are provided with the certificate for the Professorships of the Normal Colleges, or for secondary instruction, or with the *baccalauréats* of special secondary instruction, or that for science or for literature. (3) Professors of Normal Colleges who, after a residence in a foreign country, obtained the certificate to teach the language of that country; (4) the Principal Teachers of schools attached to Normal Colleges, or those of superior primary schools who have given at least two years' service in that capacity. The examination for the Inspectorship is conducted by a Commission which sits at Paris, and is composed of five members, to which are added for the examination of candidates for the position of Inspector, two Directresses of the Normal Colleges. The written examination consists of two papers, one



on an educational theme, the other on school administration. This takes place at the chief places of each Department, under the supervision of the Academy Inspector. The papers are transmitted to Paris, and after having been read, the Commission decides on those who are to be admitted to the oral and practical examinations. These take place in Paris. The oral examination includes (1) a critical examination of some author, taken at pleasure by the Commission, from a list designated by the Minister for the particular year. An hour's preparation is allowed for the examination. The examination has reference to psychology applied to education, the practice of teaching, the history of education, and the educational laws of France; (2) an explanation relative to one of the points of the programme. The question is drawn by lot, and three hours' preparation is allowed the candidate. The oral is followed by a practical examination, which consists in the inspection, under the supervision of the Commission, of a Normal College, of a superior primary school, of an elementary primary school, or of an infants' school.

The following is the list of authors which were prescribed for the year 1890, for the examination in Education:—

Montaigne: "Essais," livre I., chap. xxv., "De l'Institution des Enfants."



Fénelon : "L'Education des Filles," chap. i. à vi., ix. à xii.

Nicole : "Morceaux choisis sur l'Enseignement et l'Education, dans L'Education à Port-Royal," par F. Cadet, ou dans, "Les Pédagogues de Port-Royal," par I. Carré.

Locke : "Thoughts on Education." Second part, "On the Moral Qualities."

J. J. Rousseau : "Emile," livre II.

Le Père Girard : De l'Enseignement régulier de la langue maternelle," livre I.

Mme Guizot : "L'Education Domestique." Lettres X. et XI. sur le rôle des habitudes dans l'éducation.

Herbert Spencer : "Education," chap. ii. "Intellectual Education."

Jules Simon : "L'Ecole," 2<sup>e</sup> et 3<sup>e</sup> parties : "L'Education des Filles et l'Instruction Obligatoire."

Anthoine : "A Travers nos Ecoles," les quarante-deux premières pages.

The examination for the Inspectorships is the same as that for the position of Director or Directress of the Normal Colleges. The Inspectors who were appointed since 1880 were recruited as follows:—

(1.) Teachers	..	..	..	84
(2.) Directors of schools attached to training colleges	..	..	..	14
(3.) Masters attached to training colleges				24

- |  |    |    |    |
|--|----|----|----|
| (4.) Clerks of inspection              | .. | .. | 18 |
| (5.) Professors of training colleges   | .. | .. | 81 |
| (6.) Professors of secondary education | .. | .. | 12 |

The Academy Inspectors are appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, and the Inspectors-General by the President of the Republic. The Inspectors-General, as we have seen, are not mere examiners. These officers require qualifications of a special order for the discharge of their important functions. They are all educationists in the true sense of the word, and have been selected for their posts as such.

#### French Educational Literature.

If we should require a further proof than that supplied by observation of the schools and colleges, of the great spirit of educational progress which has in recent years sprung up in France, and which, notwithstanding certain ill-directed measures, has infused life and vigour into the whole educational system, we should find it in the vast pedagogic literature which in recent years has issued from the press. Without referring to the excellent works of Monseigneur Dupanloup, or going outside the ranks of those engaged in education at the present day, France can point to a vast collection of valuable works on the science and practice of education. Every official who occupies a prominent and responsible position in the system of elementary education in France, from the

Director-General down, seems to have contributed something to the educational literature of the day. This has had a vast influence on the march of popular education. Among the most important of these works are the following :—

- “Dictionnaire de Pédagogie.”—M. Buisson.
- “Histoire d'Education.”—Gabriel Compayré.
- “Organisation Pédagogique.”—Gabriel Compayré.
- “Psychologie,” (Theorie et Applications Pédagogiques.)—Gabriel Compayré.
- “L'Education de l'Instittieur.”—Leon Chauvin.
- “L'Enseignement au point de vue National.”—Alfred Fouillée.
- “Alentour de l'Ecole.”—Edouard Petit.
- “L'Ecole.”—Jules Simon.

2 “Monographies Pédagogiques,” publiés à l'occasion de l'Exposition Universelle de 1889, sous la direction de M. Buisson, (6 vols.):—1. “Organisation de l'Enseignement Primaire.” 2. “Tableau de l'Enseignement Primaire dans les Departements.” “Etablissements Supérieurs de Enseignement Primaire.” 3. “Institutions Pédagogiques.” (Musée Pédagogique, etc.) 4. “Les Méthodes pour les différents Enseignements.” 5. 6. “Institutions de prévoyance (caisses des écoles, caisses d'épargne scolaire, orphelinat de l'Enseignement Primaire, Colonies de vacance.”—Marion, Jalliffier, Pécaut, Jacoulet, Jost,

Hémon, Carré, Lichtenberger, Michel Bréal, Cadet, Salicis, Leysénne, etc.

"L'Education et la Bourgeoisie sous la République."—Maneuvrier.

"Réforme de l'Instruction Nationale."—Raunié.

"L'Education Nationale" (1871-1879), 2 vols.—Pécaut.

"Pestalozzi."—Guillaume.

"Locke."—Marion.

"Les Pères et les Enfants au XIX. Siècle."—Legouré.

"Pédagogie Psychologique."—Chaumeil.

"Revue Pédagogique."—Publiée par le Musée Pédagogique.

"La Famille et L'Education."—Baudrillart.

"L'Education Maternelle dans l'Ecole."—Mme. Kergomard.

"Quelques mots sur l'Instruction Publique en France."—M. Bréal.

"L'Instruction Publique et la Revolution."—M. Duruy.

"Education et Instruction," 4 vols.—M. Gréard.

"Education et Instruction Primaire."—M. Vessiot.

"L'Instruction Primaire avant la Revolution."—L'Abbé Allain.

A long list of valuable works, published within the past ten years, might be added to these. Works of this class are very generally read in France. They are



in most cases full of valuable instruction and sound precepts calculated not only to impress the principles of educational science on all those engaged in the work of instruction, but also to give them a proper estimate of the magnitude of the interests which depend on the due fulfilment of their various duties. They are national incentives to progress. There is hardly a subject or branch of knowledge bearing on educational science, its historical development, the methods of distinguished teachers, psychology as applied to education, etc., which the French teacher will not find treated in the vast educational literature of the present day. And here the contrast is striking even between Great Britain and France; but when we cast our thoughts from these fertile writers of France to Ireland, the contrast can give rise only to unpleasant reflections; for with one or two exceptions there is not a single living man in this country who has written a work on the science or practice of education. The disparity may at first blush be ascribed to a difference between the emoluments of the educational functionaries of the two countries. There is indeed a disparity in this respect between Ireland and France, but the advantage is all on the side of Ireland. It is interesting to note the honours and distinctions which have been awarded to some of the writers mentioned above solely on the ground of their contributions to educational science,

and their efforts for the promotion of popular education. M. Buisson is Director-General, a Member of the Council of State, and is *Commandeur* of the Legion of Honour; M. Gabriel Compayré, Professor of the Superior Training Colleges of St. Cloud and Fontenay-aux-Roses, Lauréat of the Institute, and Rector of the Academy of Poitiers; M. Jules Simon is a Senator and a Member of the French Academy; M. Leon Chauvin is Director of a Normal College and "Officer de l'Instruction Publique;" M. Bréal, Member of the Institute, and Professor of the *Collège de France*; M. Marion was Professor of Psychology at the Superior Normal Colleges of Fontenay-aux-Roses and St. Cloud, and is now Professor of the Science of Education at the Sorbonne. And so on for the others.



## CHAPTER XXVI.

### THE SUPERIOR NORMAL COLLEGE OF ST. CLOUD.

**B**Y far the most interesting institutions of elementary education in France are the two Superior Normal Colleges of St. Cloud and Fontenay-aux-Roses. These are Colleges for training professors for the ordinary Normal Colleges. In France, the Principals and Professors of the Normal Colleges for Mistresses are females. These are educated for the Professorships in the Superior Normal College of Fontenay-aux-Roses, founded in 1880. From the very first, this College seems to have been marked out for a successful future. It is an excellent institution ; but as the professorships of the training colleges, both male and female, are held principally by men in Great Britain and Ireland, we will confine our description to the institution which educates the male professors, namely, the Superior Training College of St. Cloud.

Within a year from the foundation of the College of Fontenay-aux-Roses, it was seen that the experiment had proved a success, and accordingly, steps were taken to put a similar project in force for

training professors for the male colleges. In 1881 a Commission was nominated to decide on the means of establishing, for the masters attached to the Training Colleges, courses of lectures preparatory to the examinations for the professorships, similar to the courses at the College of Fontenay-aux-Roses. On a favourable report by M. Gréard, a Ministerial decree of the 9th March of that year inaugurated courses of lectures preparatory for the professorship examination, extending from the 1st of April till the 15th of July, 1881, and open to the masters attached to the Normal Colleges. The State bore all the expense in connection with these classes, and the Rectors were invited to submit the names of the masters within their academies who appeared most likely to profit by the course of instruction. The course was held at Sèvres, in the institution which is now the Superior Normal College of secondary instruction for girls. Thirty-three masters from the Colleges attended the course of instruction, of whom twenty-one belonged to the Science Class, and the others to that of Literature. The best professors of Paris were engaged to deliver courses of lectures to these classes, and at the end of three months an examination for the Professorship was held, and six candidates received a certificate in Literature, and thirteen in Science. Notwithstanding the success which attended this course of lectures, it was felt



that the time was too short to ensure a thorough training to candidates for the Professorship. Moreover, those who attended the course were the *élite* of the masters attached to the Colleges, and the same class of material could not be obtained for the next course of lectures. The duration of the course should, therefore, be extended. The principle was now proved to be a sound one, and hence it was resolved to establish, instead of the course of lectures delivered at Sèvres, a College wherein the studies should extend over a term of two years. The residence of the governor of the once magnificent Palace of St. Cloud, with other dependencies, were transformed into the Superior Normal College by a decree of the 30th of December, 1882, signed by M. Jules Grevy, President of the Republic, and by M. Jules Duvaux, Minister of Public Instruction. A year later, the special school for manual instruction was suppressed, and the function of training Professors of Manual Instruction for the Training Colleges, as well as Professors of Literature and of Science, was entrusted to the new institution. In 1886, the appointment of Directors and Professors of the Superior Primary Schools was entrusted to the Minister; and now the students of the College of St. Cloud may be appointed either to these institutions or to the Normal Colleges.

#### The Directors and Professors of the College.

The Superior Normal College of St. Cloud is under a Director, a Sub-Director, and a Bursar. The Director of the College, M. Jacoulet, is a distinguished educationist, and holds a deservedly high rank in the department of Public Instruction. Under his direction the College has attained a remarkable degree of efficiency. The staff of teaching Professors are not specially attached to the College; they are generally Professors of the *Lycées* of Paris and Versailles who have distinguished themselves in the domain of secondary education. Each gives at least two lectures weekly, of an hour and a half each. There are twenty-five of these Professors, and they are paid at the rate of £2 per lecture.

#### The Students.

The number of students in the College is 40, of whom 20 are for Literature, and 20 for Science. Among the students are foreigners who come to study the French language, and also Science, in the College. These, among others, included in recent years three Luxemburgers, a German, a Tunisian, an Egyptian, and a Japanese. There were two Egyptian students in the College when I last visited it in the summer of the present year. These were admitted by an arrangement between the Education Department in

Cairo and that in Paris. Two of the former students of this College (Frenchmen) are Professors in the Normal College of Cairo; one is Director of the Normal College in Tunis; one is a Primary Inspector in Tunis; and one is Director of the French College at Pondicherry. On an average, twenty students are admitted annually by competitive examination. These candidates must be at least nineteen years of age, and not more than twenty-five on the first of October of the year in which they present themselves for the examination. Owing, however, to the recent military law, which requires teachers to serve a year with the colours, and as this service must be given before the age of twenty-one, no students are now admitted between the ages of nineteen and twenty-one years, in order that their course may not be interrupted by military services. The Minister may dispense with these conditions of age. Candidates must have obtained the *Brevet Supérieur* or one of the *Baccalauréats*, and unless they have already engaged to do so, must sign a contract to give ten years' service in the department of Public Instruction. The entrance examination is written, oral, and practical. The written examination consists, for candidates in Literature, of French Literature, Grammar, Education, Moral Instruction, History, Geography, and English or German. For the candidates in Science: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry,



Natural History, Geometric and Ornamental Drawing, English or German, Education, and Moral Instruction. The examination is held in the chief place of each Department under the superintendence of the Academy Inspector, and the exercises are read and adjudged at Paris, by the Commission which is appointed to conduct the examination. Those who pass the written examination are called to Paris for the oral, which consists of an explanation of a piece of English, or German, for both the candidates in Literature and in Science; and in addition for the former, an explanation of some questions in Grammar, Literature, History, Geography, and of some authors taken from the list for the *Brevet Supérieur*; and for the latter, explanations of mathematical propositions, and of some subject in Physics, Chemistry, or Natural History. The practical examination for candidates in Science consists in making a model or some object in metal or wood. The intern students are boarded free in the College, and, in addition, receive, for travelling and other incidental expenses, an annual payment of 250 francs, (£10). The ordinary annual expenditure of the College is above 160,000 francs. Each student thus costs the State annually about 4,000 francs, or £160. The Superior Council of Primary Education considered the course of two years insufficient, and accordingly the decree of the 18th January, 1887, extended it



to three years, but this decree has not yet been put into force.

Bursaries of £100 a-year for one or two years are offered annually to those students who have finished their course in the College, and have obtained the Certificate of the Professorship, to enable the young professors to reside in England or Germany in order to master either language of these countries. When these return they present themselves at the examinations for the certificates to teach these languages, and on appointment to a College, undertake, in addition to the ordinary subjects, the instruction of the students in English or German, and are paid for so doing a salary supplemental to that attached to the Professorship.

#### The Course of Instruction in the College.

The programmes of the Normal Colleges form the basis of the lectures and instruction in the Superior College of St. Cloud. The Professor must be complete master of his subject in order to render his instruction efficient. The instruction in the subjects of the curriculum is, therefore, of a far higher character than that reached in the ordinary Normal Colleges. Although the students are formed into sections, one for science, the other for literature, the science students receive, in addition to their science subjects, a course of literary instruction, and attend

in common with the literary students the lectures on modern languages, and on psychology. The literary students are not confined to the subjects of the ordinary Normal Colleges; they follow besides a course of lectures on historical grammar, ancient literature, the history of educational doctrines, political economy, &c.

In addition to the course of lectures, the students in science are themselves called upon to make the experiments in chemistry and physics, and to examine, classify, and collect numerous specimens in Natural History. These are in the early part of the course, conducted under the direction of the Professors, and later under that of the "*Preparateur*" attached to the College, who is at present the Superintendent-master. The students, moreover, make about a dozen visits annually, accompanied by their Professors, to the principal workshops, factories, and other industrial establishments of Paris, wherein they can see the application of the sciences to the arts and manufactures. A like number of excursions are made to the country around, to study geology and botany, and to collect specimens. Oral examinations are held weekly on the various subjects, by professors other than the lecturers in the particular subject. These are so arranged that every three weeks every student is examined on the lectures delivered for that period. Towards the end of the second year

these examinations are discontinued, and instead, the students are required to give short lectures on subjects drawn by lot, for which only a short preparation is allowed. The Professors both of Literature and Science arrange their lectures, so as to finish the programme about two months prior to the examination for the Professorships. During these two months the students are called upon to give lectures themselves on subjects prepared in advance. These lectures are to be adapted to the requirements of the Normal Colleges. They are given under the direction of a Professor, and are discussed by the other students, and finally criticised by the Professors.

#### Conferences.

A succession of Conferences is held during the session four or five evenings in the week. The Principal of the College presides at the Conferences of the literary section, and the Vice-Principal or Superintendent-Master at those of the Science section. These Conferences consist of reading and explanation, recitation, examining the exercises of the students of a Training College, and chiefly of lectures given by the students, and prepared in advance. The themes for these lectures are selected by the students themselves and submitted for approval to the Principal. These lectures are discussed by the class. The President of the Conference directs the discussion on



the lecture, and at the end gives his own judgment on its merits. An excellent expedient is adopted for exciting interest both within and without the College in its work and progress. A number of distinguished literary men are from time to time invited to attend and deliver lectures on special subjects to the literary students. The subjects of the addresses are arranged beforehand. The students naturally take great interest in these lectures, and listen with much advantage to the remarks and discourses of their learned visitors.

#### The College Buildings.

The College is very picturesquely situated, and commands a fine view of Paris. The beautiful park of St. Cloud is adjacent, and here the students are permitted to take their recreation. The students of the Science class only, are taught manual work. There are large workshops for iron work and for wood work. These are fitted with a most complete and costly set of appliances, including a steam engine for turning metal. There is a small room fitted with materials for bookbinding, in which art the students are instructed; the chemical laboratory is very extensive, and plentifully supplied with materials and apparatus for experiments, and for giving an extensive course of instruction in chemistry. There is a physical cabinet elaborately furnished, and a museum contain-



ing a collection of specimens in natural history, etc.; in the drawing-room several fine specimens of the students' work were shown, and a similar collection of objects in the workshops made by the students themselves. I was informed by the Superintendent-Master, to whom I am much indebted for the trouble he took to show me everything of importance in the working of the College, that the students make models in clay and plaster, both for drawing purposes, and for wood and metal work. On the last day I visited the institution twelve of these models in clay, all human heads, had just been finished by the students in the room for drawing. The students are supplied with class-books from the library, and with exercise-books free. There is, in addition, a consulting library, from which they can borrow works for reference and general reading. The library contains already about 4,000 volumes. There is a special fund voted annually for adding to the collection in the library. The students in this College are all young men destined in the near future to fill responsible positions in the Department of Public Instruction. They are therefore treated with a high degree of consideration, and are allowed privileges which students by no means hold in the other Normal Colleges. Several have separate bed-rooms, but are not permitted to read in the room. They are usually employed as follows during the day : —

Rise	..	..	5 a.m.
Study	..	..	5.30 to 7.30 a.m.
Breakfast	..	..	7.30 to 8 a.m.
Study and lectures	..	..	8 to 12 noon.
(with half-an-hour's recreation).			
Dinner	..	..	12 to 1.30 p.m.
Study or lectures	..	..	1.30 to 4 p.m.
Recreation or singing	..	..	4 to 5 p.m.
Study or lectures	..	..	5 to 7.30 p.m.
Supper	..	..	7.30 to 8.30 p.m.
Study or Conference	..	..	8.30 to 9.30 p.m.

At half-past nine, the students retire for the night. There is a large *Salle de Reunion* for the students, furnished with billiard-tables, chess-boards, and apparatus for other games. It is also supplied with the French political journals, with the English, and German, illustrated papers, with reviews, scientific and educational periodicals, etc. On Sunday the students are free during the entire day, and are not required to return to the College until ten o'clock at night. It can be readily conceived that students treated with such extraordinary liberality by the State look back to the years spent in this grand institution with sentiments of pride and affection; that, moreover, when they go out into the educational world they must feel under an obligation to devote their best energies to the work for which the State has trained them at such vast expenditure. The young Professors, it would

seem, do not fail in this latter particular. I can speak with personal knowledge of many of these now engaged in the Normal Colleges, both in Paris and the Departments, and without exception they all seemed to me to be not only thoroughly competent for the discharge of their important functions, but animated with a deep sense of the duty which devolves upon them, and enthusiastic in their desire to promote the progress of popular education in France. Nor are the Professors forgetful of their bounteous *Alma Mater* and of the friendships contracted therein. They have formed a friendly society to maintain the bond which must necessarily attach to one another such college companions, from community of feelings and strivings for the same end. This society contains now close on 300 members, including thirty honorary members, and nearly all those who attended the course of lectures, which led to the foundation of the College at Sévres. The society has a capital of 7,000 francs, which is increasing yearly, and will be devoted, if the occasion requires it—and who can say that it will not?—to assist such of the members as may fall into adverse circumstances. The members meet annually to discuss the affairs of their mission, and to renew the old acquaintance, in the College, beneath the historic shadow of the old chateau of St. Cloud.



## CHAPTER XXVII.

### INTELLECTUAL EDUCATION.

THE object and method of the course of intellectual instruction in the Elementary Schools of France have thus been defined by the Ministry of Public Instruction.

#### 1<sup>o</sup>.—Object of Intellectual Education.

The intellectual education which the primary school can give is easy to define. It deals with only a limited number of subjects. But these subjects are of such a character that they not only give the child a practical knowledge of all that he will require throughout life, but they act upon his faculties, they form his mind, they cultivate and develop it, and they constitute a true education.

The aim of the primary school is not to teach much, but to teach well. The child who leaves it may know little, but he knows it thoroughly: the instruction which he has received is restricted, but it is not superficial. This is not an imperfect course of instruction, nor is he to whom it has been imparted only half educated, for it is not the mere extent,



greater or less, of a course of instruction which renders it complete or incomplete, but rather the manner in which it has been taught.

In the primary schools, owing to the age of the pupils and the careers for which they are destined, there is neither the time nor leisure to go over such a cycle of subjects as that in force in the secondary schools. Their training, however, affords them, in a more humble sphere, the same benefits that secondary studies confer on the pupils of the *Lycées*. It ensures that the pupils of the primary, as well as those of the secondary, schools derive from the public instruction a store of knowledge suited to their future wants, and especially good habits of mind, an opened and awakened intelligence, clear ideas, judgment, reflection, order and correctness in thought and in language.

“The object of primary instruction”—as it has been well defined—“is not to embrace, in the different subjects on which it touches, all that is possible to know, but to learn thoroughly in each of them what cannot be ignored.\*

#### 2°. Method.

The object of the instruction being thus defined,

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\* Gréard, Rapport sur la situation de l'Enseignement primaire de la Seine en 1875.

the method to be followed is self-evident. It must consist neither in a series of mechanical processes, nor in an apprenticeship only to those first instruments of education—reading, writing, calculations; nor in a bare succession of lessons unfolding to the pupils the different chapters of a course. The only method which is suited to primary instruction is that which brings out in turn the master and the pupils; which maintains, so to speak, between them and him a continual exchange of ideas under various forms easily and ingeniously graduated. The master invariably sets out with what the children know, and proceeding from the known to the unknown, from the easy to the difficult, he leads them by a series of oral questions or written exercises to find out the consequences of a principle, the applications of a rule, or inversely the principles and the rules which they have already unconsciously applied.

In all instruction the teacher, in the beginning, uses material objects, makes them see and handle them, places the children in the presence of concrete realities, then little by little exercises them to draw therefrom the abstract idea, to compare, to generalise, to reason without the aid of natural examples.

It is then by a constant appeal to the senses, to the judgment, to the intellectual instincts of the pupils that primary instruction must be sustained.

It is essentially intuitive and practical; *intuitive*, that is to say, it relies above all on the natural good sense, on the force of evidence, on that innate power which the human mind possesses of seizing at the first glance, and without demonstration, not all, but the simplest and most fundamental truths; *practical*, that is to say, it never loses sight of the fact that the pupils of the primary schools have not time to lose in idle discussions, in learned theories, in scholastic curiosities, and that there are not more than five or six years of school life to fortify them with the little treasury of ideas which they shall necessarily require, and especially to place them in a condition to preserve and to enlarge what they have acquired.

It is on this twofold condition that primary instruction must undertake the education and the culture of the mind ; it is, so to speak, nature herself which directs it; it develops concurrently the different faculties of the intelligence by the only means at its disposal, that is, in exercising them by a simple, spontaneous, almost instinctive method ; it forms the judgment in leading the child to judge; the spirit of observation in leading him to observe much, the reasoning power in enabling him to reason without the aid of the rules of logic.

This confidence in the natural powers of the mind, which require only development, and this absence

of all pretensions to science properly so called, is adapted to all rudimentary instruction, but is especially imperative in the primary public schools, which must *act*, not on a few selected children, but on the entire school population. The instruction there is necessarily collective and simultaneous; the teacher must not devote himself to a few, but to all; it is by the results obtained on the entire class, and not on the *élite* of the class, that his educational work must be appreciated. Whatever may be the inequalities in intelligence presented by the children, primary instruction ought to communicate a minimum of knowledge and aptitude to all the pupils with rare exceptions. This level will be very readily surpassed by a few; but even so, if it is not reached by the entire class, the teacher has not properly understood his duty or has not entirely fulfilled it.





*Appendix.*

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DETAILED PROGRAMMES.

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PROGRAMME

FOR

INFANT SCHOOLS.

## PROGRAMME FOR

Subjects.	Second Section.—Children from 2 to 5 years of age.	
<b>The first Principles of Moral Education.</b>	Endeavour to lead the children to contract good habits, to gain their affections, to preserve harmony amongst them. First notions of good and evil.	
<b>Language.</b>	Exercises in pronunciation.—Exercises to augment the vocabulary of the children; little exercises to train the memory (songs, fables, stories), followed by questions.	

## INFANT SCHOOLS.

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First Section.—Children from 5 to 6 years of age.

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Simple conversations ; short verses explained and learnt by heart ; moral stories related and followed by questions calculated to explain the sense and to ascertain whether the infants have understood it ; simple songs.

The mistress is to pay special attention to children in whom she has observed any vicious tendencies.

Combined exercises in language, reading, writing.

- (1.) Oral exercises : Familiar questions having for their object to teach the children to express themselves nicely, to correct faults of pronounciation and of local accent.
  - (2.) Exercises of memory. Recitation of short poetic pieces.
  - (3.) Written exercises. Copying from dictation, first one word, then two words, then simple phrases.
  - (4.) Very short lectures given by the mistress, listened to and then related by the children.
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Objects.	Second Section.—Children from 2 to 5 years of age.	
<p><b>Object Lessons.—Information on the most common objects. Ideas of Natural History.</b></p>	<p>'Names of the chief parts of the human body, of the principal animals of the country, of plants used for food or those within reach of the children; trees in the school-yard, on the ways to the school, familiar flowers, &amp;c.</p> <p>The names and uses of objects which are familiar to the children (articles of dress, articles used for food.)</p> <p>Studies on colours and forms.</p> <p>Notions of day and night, observations on the duration of time—hour, day, week, the names of the day, evening, morrow, &amp;c.; the age of the child.</p> <p>The attention of the children to be directed to the differences between heat and cold, rainy and fine weather.</p> <p>Observations on the seasons and the productions peculiar to each.</p> <p>The first education of the senses by the means of little exercises.</p> <p>To make the children discern and compare colours, tints, forms, lengths, weights, temperatures, sounds, odours, flavours.</p>	



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Children from 5 to 6 years of age.

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Elementary notions on the human body.

Studies and comparisons of the animals which the children know; of plants, stones, metals; a few plants used for food, and some used in industry; ordinary stones and metals.

The air and water (vapour, clouds, rain, snow, ice).

Short object lessons, with the objects always before the eyes, and in the hands of the children; familiar conversations with the view of imparting to the children the first elements of ordinary information (right, left . . . names of days, months; distinction of animals, of vegetables, of minerals; the seasons), and above all, to lead them to watch, to observe, to compare, to question, to remember.

*The order to be followed in the lessons.*—To combine as often as possible in aiming at the same end, the object lessons, drawing, moral instruction, games and songs, in order that the unity of impression of these different forms of instruction may leave a more lasting influence on the minds and hearts of the children. The mistresses must endeavour to regulate as far as possible the order of these lessons by the seasons, that nature herself may furnish the objects for the lessons, and that the child may contract thus the habit to observe, to compare, to judge.

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Subjects.	Children from 2 to 5 years of age.	
<b>Drawing, Writing, Reading.</b>	<p>Cubes, balls, laths, &amp;c. Mosaics. Explanation of very simple pictures (animals, usual objects). Combinations of lines with little rods. Representation on slates of these combinations; description of usual objects. Any reading exercises.</p>	
<b>Calculation.</b>	<p>Familiarize the children with the numbers, one, two, three, four, five, one-half; exercise them in counting up to ten.</p> <p>Mental calculations on the first ten numbers.</p>	

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Children from 5 to 6 years of age.

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Combinations of lines, representations of these combinations on the slate and on paper with pencils or in colours; drawing on checkered paper, reproduction of simple drawings made by the mistress.

Representation of familiar objects.

First exercises in reading.

First elements of writing.

Letters, syllables, and words.

First elements of numeration, oral and written; mental calculation; addition and subtraction of concrete numbers not exceeding 100; studies on the first ten numbers, and of the expressions, one-half, one-third, one-fourth.

The four operations on numbers of two figures.

The mètre, the franc, the litre.

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Subjects.	Children from 2 to 5 years.	
<b>Geography.</b>	<p>The residence and address of the parents, name of the Commune. Exercises on the distance and relative situation of the various parts of the school.</p> <p>Land and water.</p> <p>The sun (rising and setting).</p>	
<b>National History.</b>	<p>...      ...      ...      ...      ...</p>	
<b>Manual Work.</b>	<p>Sports.</p> <p>Exercises in folding, weaving, plaiting.</p>	
<b>Singing.</b>	<p>Singing collectively simple songs.</p> <p>Evolutions, marches, graduated movements.</p>	



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Children from 5 to 6 years.

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Familiar conversations and preparatory exercises serving especially to give rise to a spirit of observation among the little children in leading them to remark the ordinary phenomena of nature and the principal irregularities of the earth.

Anecdotes, narrations, short biographies drawn from the national history; stories, accounts of voyages, explanation of pictures.

Folding, weaving, plaiting, combinations in wool of colours copied from canvas or paper; exercises in knitting.

Collective singing and in two parts; the songs to be learned exclusively from hearing.

Marching, graduated exercises, movements, &c.

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# SPECIAL PROGRAMME

OF

## OBJECT LESSONS FOR INFANT SCHOOLS.

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### OCTOBER.

#### OBJECT LESSONS.

*Recitals, conversations, questions with the objects as far as possible placed before the eyes of the children.*

**The Vintage**—The vine, grapes, wine, vat, cask, bottle, wine-glass, corks, litre, pump, cider, hops, beer.

#### DRAWING.

*Lineal drawings of objects on the blackboard by the mistress.*

Bunch of grapes, vine-leaf, wine-glass, vat, cask, bottle, wine-press, funnel, litre.

#### CHANTS ET JEUX (SONGS AND PLAYS).

*'L' Automne* (The Autumn)  
*Le Tonnelier* (The Cooper)

### NOVEMBER.

#### OBJECT LESSONS.

**Husbandry**—The plough, seed-sowing.

**Lighting** — Candles, lamps, gas, lighthouses.

#### DRAWING.

The plough sock, harrow, candlestick, lamp, gas-jet, lighthouse.

#### SONGS AND PLAYS.

*Le Labour*—*Les Semailles* (work—seed-sowing).

## DECEMBER.

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**Heating**—Cold, snow, ice, avalanches, Swiss Alps, skates, sledges, thermometer, stoves, fireplace, wood, coal, matches, chilblains, colds, fireplace, home.

## DRAWING.

Skate, sledge, thermometer, stove, fireplace, bellows, shovel, tongs, fire-hose.

## SONGS.

*Le petit Ramoneur* (the little chimney-sweeper)  
*Le Feu* (the fire)

## JANUARY.

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**The New Year**—Movement of the earth around the sun, compliments, New Year's gifts, charity.

Oranges, chestnuts.

**Clothing**—Furs, coverings, eider-down, wool, cotton, cloths, flannel, weaving, dyeing, needles, pins.

## DRAWING.

Sphere, oranges, chestnuts, money-box, scissors, tape-measure.

## SONGS.

*L' Hiver* (the winter),  
*Souhails de bonne année* (wishes of a happy new year)

*Les petites tricoteuse* (the little knitters)

## FEBRUARY.

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**The Human Body**—The principal organs of sense.

**Food**—Meats and drinks, baker, butcher, fruiterer, grocer, hunger, appetite, indigestion.

## DRAWING.

The eye, the ear, the nose, the hand.

Stove, saucepan, kettle, pot, gridiron.

## SONGS.

*La Gymnastique* (Gymnastics).

*Le pain* (Bread)



## MARCH.

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**The Dwelling**—Wood, stone, iron, brick, slate, plaster, lime, tile, zinc.

**Bees**—Hive, cells, wax, honey.

## DRAWING.

House, window, door, table, bed, chair, press, wall, row of cut-stone, of bricks; plan of a house, hammer, saw, pincers, square, compass, file, auger, trowel.

## SONGS.

*Les petits ouvriers* (The little workers).

*La Ronde des Abeilles* (The journey of the bees).

## APRIL.

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**Vegetation**—Grain, roots, stalks, flowers, &c.

**Insects**—Caterpillar, silk-worm.

**The Nests of Birds**—Service which birds render us—swallows.

## DRAWING.

Flowers, leaves, beans, peas, potatoes.

## SONGS.

*Le printemps* (The Spring).

*Le Ver à soie* (The Silk-worm).

## MAY

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**Water**—Brook, stream, river, sea, tide, cold baths, swimming.

**Fishing**—Sea and fresh water fish.

**Washing**—Soap, cleanliness.

## DRAWING.

Bath, boat, hook, line, fish.

Tub, pump, fountain, well, beetle, bath.

## SONGS.

*Vive l'eau* (Hail, water!).  
*Les Bourgeois de Provence* (The citizens of Provence).

## JUNE.

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**The Farm**—Haymaking, the horse, ass, sheep-dog, wolf, sheep, pig, turkey, hen, goose, duck, pigeon, the dairy, milk, butter, cheese.

## DRAWING.

Earthenpan, churn, milk-pail, litre.

## SONGS.

*Le Petit berger.*—*La Fenaïson* (The little Shepherd.—Haymaking).

## JULY.

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**The Storm**—Lightning, thunder, hail, wind, lightning-rod, rainbow.

**Fruits**—Cherries, strawberries, apricots, pears, apples, plums.

## DRAWING.

House, lightning-rod, rainbow, umbrella.

Bunch of cherries, apricots, pears, apples, plums.

## SONGS.

*L'été!*—*La Marchand de fruits* (The Summer.—The fruit-seller).

## AUGUST.

## OBJECT LESSONS.

**The Harvest**—Wheat, barley, oats, flour, bread, dough, oven, baker, pastry-cook.

**Journeys**—Roads, railroads, steam-boats, maps, Cardinal points, compass, magnet, Christopher Columbus, races of men, the fatherland, the world.

## DRAWING.

Sheaf, ear of wheat, scythe, reaping-hook, windmill, pair of millstones, balance, weights.

Locomotive, rails, sailing-boat, steam-boat, oars, rudder, mariner's compass.

## SONGS.

*Le jeu du ble* (The game of wheat).

*La ronde du tour du monde* (The voyage round the world).

SEPTEMBER.

OBJECT LESSONS.

**Hunting**—The deer, stag, wild boar, wolf, fox, hare, rabbit, partridge, lark, quail, gun.

**The Village Fete**—Fair, shop, fireworks, powder, money.

DRAWING.

Hunting-horn, game-bag, gun, coins.

SONGS.

*Le Renard* (The fox).



# PROGRAMME OF THE PRIMARY PHYSICAL

Subjects.	Section Enfantine, 5 to 7 years.	Cours Elémentaire, 7 to 9 years.	
<b>1°. Hy- giene.</b>	Inspection as to per- sonal cleanness, &c.	Inspection, &c. Instruction as to food, clothing, habits, &c.	
<b>2°. Gym- nastics.</b>  The manuals published by the Ministry for boys and girls are to be used.	Simple movements.	Exercises of the arms and legs ; exercises on the bar, evolu- tions, &c.	
<b>3°. Mili- tary Exercises.</b> *	...      ...      ...	...      ...      ...	

\* Manual work is included in this section, the programme for which





## INTELLECTUAL

Subjects.	Section Enfantine.	Cours Elémentaire, 7 to 9 years.	
<b>1°. Read- ing.</b>	First exercises in reading. Letters, syllables, words.	Continuous reading with explanation of words.	
<b>2°. Writ- ing.</b>	First elements.	Large, medium and small hand.	
<b>3°. French Language.</b>	Combined exercises in language, read- ing, writing, pre- paratory to ortho- graphy.	Elementary ideas im- parted orally, of the noun (num- ber, gender), the adjective, the pro- noun, the verb (first elements of conjugation).  The formation of the plural and femi- nine; the agree- ment of the ad- jective with the noun, of the verb with its subject.  Ideas of simple pro- positions.	

## EDUCATION.

	Cours Moyen.	Cours Supérieur.
	Reading and explanation.	Intelligent reading.
	Ordinary writing.	Ordinary writing.
	Elementary grammar—the parts of speech, conjugation, ideas of syntax.	Revision of the grammar and of syntax.
	The general rules of the past participle; the families of words; simple and derivative words; the principles of punctuation.	A knowledge of the proposition, and of the different kinds of propositions.
		The functions of words in phrases.
		Principal rules relative to employment of words and sequence of tenses.

Subjects.	Section Enfantine.	Cours Élémentaire.	
<b>3°. French Language.</b> <i>continued.</i>	<p>1°. ORAL EXERCISES.  — Simple questions with the view of teaching the children to express themselves concisely; correcting faults of pronounciation or local peculiarities of accent.</p> <p>2°. EXERCISE OF THE MEMORY. — Recitation of very short poems.</p>	<p>1°. ORAL EXERCISES.  — Questions and explanations, especially during the reading lesson, or the correction of exercises. Questions on the sense, the use, and spelling of words in the text read; spelling of difficult words.</p> <p>Reproduction orally of phrases read and explained, then of narrations or fragments of narrations made by the teacher.</p> <p>2°. EXERCISE OF THE MEMORY. — Recitation of simple poems.</p>	



	Cours Moyen.	Cours Supérieur. Ordinary notions of Etymology and Derivation.
	<p>1°. ORAL EXERCISES. — Elocution and pronunciation; grammatical questions; reproduction of statements made <i>viva voce</i>; summary of pieces read in the class.</p> <p>2°. EXERCISE OF THE MEMORY.—Recitation of fables, short poems, and some passages in prose.</p>	<p>1°. ORAL EXERCISES.—Further development of exercises in Elocution.</p> <p>Accounts given of readings, lessons, walks, experiences, &amp;c.</p> <p>Oral explanation given by the scholars of historical or literary episodes, which they have studied.</p> <p>2°. EXERCISES OF THE MEMORY.—Recitation of selected pieces, in prose and verse, of dialogues and of scenes borrowed from the French classics.</p>

Subjects.	Section Enfantine.	Cours Élémentaire.	
<b>3°. French Language.</b> <i>continued.</i>	3°. WRITTEN EXERCISES. — Dictation, first of one word, then of two, then of three words, followed by very simple phrases.	3°. WRITTEN EXERCISES. — Graduated exercises in dictation.  Various grammatical exercises.  Reproduction in writing (on the black-board, slate, or copy - book) of phrases previously explained.  Composition of simple phrases with the elements given.  4°. EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS. — Grammatical analysis, most frequently oral, sometimes written.  Decomposition of propositions into their essential parts.	

Cours Moyen.	Cours Supérieur.
<p>3°. WRITTEN EXERCISES.—  Dictation exercises, taken as far as possible from the French classics, and without seeking for grammatical difficulties.  Construction of phrases, synonyms.  Correction of dictation exercises by the pupils.  Reproduction in writing—not literal—of passages read in the class, and of narrations made <i>viva voce</i> by the teacher.  First exercises in original composition on simple subjects, and such as are most familiar to the children.</p> <p>4°. EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS—  Gramatical analysis, logical analysis, limited to the fundamental distinctions.</p>	<p>3°. WRITTEN EXERCISES.—  Dictation exercises taken from the French classics, without seeking for grammatical difficulties.</p> <p>The derivations and composition of words, etymology, and the application of the most important rules of Syntax.</p> <p>Compositions on simple subjects, accounts given of lessons and readings.</p> <p>4°. EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS—  Grammatical analysis of difficult passages met with in reading.  Oral exercises in logical analysis.</p>

Subjects.	Section Enfantine.	Cours Élémentaire.	
<b>3°. French Language,</b> <i>continued.</i>	5°. Short readings given by the mistress, in presence of the children, and then the substance related by the latter.	5°. The teacher is to read aloud for the scholars passages calculated to interest them, twice weekly.	
<b>4°. History</b>	Anecdotes, biographies, drawn from the National history, accounts of voyages, explanation of pictures.	Accounts and familiar conversations on the most distinguished personages and the principal events in the National history to the commencement of the hundred years' war.	
<b>5°. Geography.</b>	Familiar conversations and preparatory exercises serving to provoke the spirit of observation in the children in leading them to remark the principal phenomena,	Further development of the exercises of the Section Enfantine.  The Cardinal Points, not learned by heart, but pointed out in the yard, in	



Cours Moyen.	Cours Supérieur.
<p>5°. The teacher is to read aloud for the scholars passages borrowed from the French Classics, twice weekly.</p>	<p>5°. The teacher reads with the pupils literary, dramatic and historical passages.</p>
<p>An elementary course of French history, embracing the principal events only, since the hundred years' war.</p> <p>Quarterly programme :— 1st Quarter, from 1328 to 1610. 2nd Quarter, from 1610 to 1789. 3rd Quarter, from 1789 to present day. 4th Quarter, Revision.</p>	<p>Methodical revision of the history of France. A more minute study of the modern period. Notions of general history; of antiquity; Egypt, the Jews, the Greeks, Rome; of the Middle Ages and modern times; important events, studied especially in regard to their connection with France.</p>
<p>Geography of France and her colonies.</p> <p>Physical Geography.</p> <p>Political geography, with special reference to the Canton, Department, and the particular district.</p>	<p>Revision and development of the geography of France.</p> <p>The physical and political geography of Europe.</p> <p>The general geography of the world.</p>

Subjects.	Section Enfantine.	Cours Élémentaire.	
<p><b>5°. Geography.</b> <i>continued.</i></p>	<p>and the principal irregularities of the earth's surface.</p>	<p>the promenades, in connection with the position of the sun.</p> <p>Exercises of observation, on the seasons, the principal atmospheric phenomena, the horizon, the irregularities of the earth's surface.</p> <p>Explanation of geographical terms (mountains, rivers, seas, gulfs, isthmuses, straits,) always commencing with objects seen by the pupils and proceeding by analogy.</p> <p>Preparation for the study of geography by the intuitive and descriptive method.</p> <p>1°. Local Geography —the house, street, village, canton, &amp;c.</p>	

	Cours Moyen.	Cours Supérieur.
	<p>Map-drawing from memory on the blackboard and exercise books.</p>	<p>The French colonies. Map-drawing from memory</p>

Subjects.	Section Enfantine.	Cours Élémentaire.	
<b>5°. Geography.</b> <i>continued.</i>		<b>2°. General Geography</b> —the earth, its form, extent, principal divisions, and their subdivisions. Ideas of representation by maps, understanding plans and maps. The terrestrial globe, continents and oceans; conversations on the birth-place of the pupils.	
<b>6°. Civic Instruction.</b>		Familiar explanations in reading of words giving rise to national ideas, such as—citizen, soldier, army, fatherland; commune, canton, department, nation; law, justice, the public will, &c.	



Cours Moyen.	Cours Supérieur.
<p>General notions of the organization of France.</p> <p>The citizen — his obligations and rights, school duties, the military service, taxation, universal suffrage.</p> <p>The Commune, the Mairie, the Municipal Council.</p> <p>The Department, the Prefect and the Council-Général.</p> <p>The State, the legislative power, the executive power, justice.</p>	<p>A more extensive knowledge of the organization, the administration and judiciary of France.</p> <p>The Constitution, the President of the Republic, the Senate, the Chamber of Deputies, the Law; the Central, the Departmental and Communal administration; the different authorities; civil and penal justice; education, its different degrees; the public will; the army.</p>

Subject.	Section Enfantine, 5 to 7 years.	Cours Elémentaire, 7 to 9 years.
<b>7°. Calcula- tion Arithme- tic.</b>	<p>The first element of numeration, oral and written, easy exercises in mental calculation. Addition and subtraction of concrete numbers not exceeding one hundred.</p> <p>Study of the first ten numbers, and of the expressions, one-half, one-third, one-fourth.</p> <p>The four simple operations on numbers of two figures.</p> <p>The mètre, franc, litre.</p>	<p>Principles of numeration, oral, and written.</p> <p>Mental calculation.</p> <p>The four rules applied intuitively, at first, to numbers, from 1 to 10, then from 1 to 20, then 1 to 100.</p> <p>The addition and multiplication tables.</p> <p>Written calculations, Addition, subtraction, multiplication; general rules of these three operations on whole numbers. Division confined to two figures in the divisor.</p> <p>Simple problems bearing on the ordinary subjects, reasoned exercises on the problems and operations.</p> <p>Ideas of the mètre, litre, franc, gramme, its multiples and sub-multiples.</p>

Cours Moyen. 9 to 11 years.	Cours Supérieur. 11 to 13 years.
<p>Revision of the preceding course.</p> <p>Division of whole numbers.</p> <p>General idea of fractions.</p> <p>Decimal fractions, application of the four rules to decimal numbers.</p> <p>Proportion, and simple interest.</p> <p>Legal system of weights and measures.</p> <p>Ordinary problems and exercises for practice; reasoned solutions.</p> <p>Mental calculations applied to all these operations.</p>	<p>Revision with development of theory and proof, and the investigation of short methods, both in mental and written calculations.</p> <p>Primary numbers, the most important features of divisibility—the resolution of numbers into their prime factors, greatest common measure, solution of problems in interest, discount, partnership, averages, etc.</p> <p>Métrie system, application to the measure of volumes and their relation to weights. First principles of book-keeping.</p>

Subjects.	Section Enfantine, 5 to 7 years.	Cours Élémentaire, 7 to 9 years.	
<p><b>8°. Geo- metry.</b></p>		<p>Simple exercises to enable the children to recognise and designate the most common regular figures ; square, rectangle, triangle, circle.</p> <p>Different kinds of angles.</p> <p>Ideas of the three dimensions.</p> <p>Ideas of solids by means of models in relief.</p> <p>Frequent exercises of measurement and comparison of sizes by the eye, approximate valuation of distances, and their length in metric measure.</p>	



	Cours Moyen, 9 to 11 years.	Cours Supérieur, 11 to 13 years.
	<p>Study and representation on the blackboard of the figures of plane geometry, and of their simple combinations.</p> <p>Practical knowledge of the cube, the prism, the cylinder, the sphere, their fundamental properties; applications to the metric system.</p>	<p>General ideas of plane geometry and of the measurement of volumes.</p> <p><i>For Boys.</i>—Application of geometry to simple operations in surveying.</p> <p>Ideas of levelling.</p>

Subjects.	Section Enfantine, 5 to 7 years.	Cours Élémentaire, 7 to 9 years.	
<b>9°. Orna- mental Drawing.</b>	<p>Combinations of lines, representation of these combinations on slate and on paper, with ordinary pencils or in colours.</p> <p>Original drawings on checkered paper.</p> <p>Reproduction of simple drawings made by the mistress on the blackboard.</p> <p>Representation of common objects.</p>	<p>Tracing right lines and dividing them into equal parts; relation of lines.</p> <p>Reproduction and measurement of angles.</p> <p>First principles of ornamental drawing, circumferences, regular polygons, rose-windows.</p>	

Cours Moyen, 9 to 11 years.	Cours Supérieur, 11 to 12 years.
<p><i>Freehand Drawing.</i>—Ordinary geometric curves, ellipses, &amp;c., curves borrowed from the vegetable world, stalks, leaves, flowers.</p> <p>Copies of plasters representing ornamental plans in relief.</p> <p>Lineal geometrical representation and perspective, in lines, then solid geometric figures and objects in shades.</p> <p><i>Geometric Drawing.</i>—Use of instruments to trace right lines and circles; rule, compass, square, and protractor.</p> <p>The instructions in this part of the course is confined to enabling the pupils to understand the uses to which these instruments are applied; they will acquire the power of using them practically in the superior course.</p>	<p>First ideas of geometric drawing, and the elements of perspective.</p> <p><i>Freehand Drawing.</i>—Drawing from points, and reliefs of ornaments purely geometric.</p> <p>Drawing from points and reliefs of ornaments which borrow their elements from the vegetable kingdom: leaves, flowers, fruits, palm-leaves, foliage, &amp;c.</p> <p>Elementary ideas of the orders of architecture, given with the aid of pictures by the master.</p> <p>Drawings of the human head, its parts and proportions.</p> <p><i>Geometric Drawing.</i>—Executing on paper with the aid of instruments the geometric figures which have been made on the board in the middle course.</p>

Subjects.	Section Enfantine. 5 to 7 years.	Cours Élémentaire, 7 to 9 years.	
<b>9°. Orna- mental Drawing, <i>continued.</i></b>	... ..	... ..	
<b>10°. Ele- ments of Physical and Natural Sciences.</b>	Elementary ideas on the human body; hygiene; compara- tive study of the animals which the child knows; of plants, stones, metals — a few plants used for food and in industry— stones and metals in ordinary use.	Graduated object les- sons (men, ani- mals, vegetables, minerals), obser- vations of objects and ordinary phe- nomena, with sim- ple explanations.	



	Cours Moyen, 9 to 11 years.	Cours Supérieur. 11 to 13 years.
	<p>...                      ...                      ...</p> <p>Elementary notions of natural sciences.</p> <p><i>Man.</i>—General description of the human body, and an idea of the principal functions of life.</p>	<p>The principles of colouring.</p> <p>Drawings reproducing decorations of plane surfaces, or surfaces in slight relief, pavements, flooring, windows, pannels, ceilings, colouring in Indian ink.</p> <p>Representation in relief, and geometrical representations in lines of geometric solids and simple objects, such as groups of objects in wood and in iron, exterior preparations of cut-stone, large articles of ironmongery, ordinary articles of furniture, &amp;c.</p> <p>Notions of natural science; revision and extension of the <i>Cours Moyen</i>.</p> <p><i>Man.</i>—Digestion, circulation, respiration, the nervous system, the organs of sense; practical instruction in hygiene; abuse of alcohol, tobacco, &amp;c.</p>

Subjects.	Section Enfantine, 5 to 7 years.	Cours Élémentaire, 7 to 9 years.	
<b>10'. Elements of Physical and Natural Sciences.</b> <i>continued.</i>	The air, water (vapour, clouds, rain, snow, ice, &c.,) as in the first section of the <i>Ecole Maternelle</i> .	General notions on the transformation of the raw into the manufactured material (food stuffs, paper, wood, stones, metals).  Small collections made by the children, especially during the school excursions.	

Cours Moyen, 9 to 11 years.	Cours Supérieur, 11 to 13 years.
<p><i>Animals.</i>—The principal families, and the division of the vertebræ into classes; an animal to be taken as a type of each group.</p> <p><i>Vegetables.</i>—Study of a few selected types, the principal organs of plants; the principal divisions of the vegetable kingdom; distinction of useful and injurious plants, especially in the school excursions.</p> <p>The three states of bodies, notions of the air, water, combustion; simple experiments.</p>	<p><i>Animals.</i>—Principal outlines of classification; useful and noxious animals.</p> <p><i>Vegetables.</i>—Essential parts of the plant, principal groups, herborization.</p> <p><i>Minerals.</i>—General notions of the earth, rocks, fossils; examples in the district excursions, and collections.</p> <p><i>Elementary Physics.</i>—Gravity, the lever, elementary principles of the equilibrium of liquids, atmospheric pressure, the barometer.</p> <p>Elementary principles of heat, light, electricity, and magnetism (thermometer, steam-engine, lightning conductor, the telegraph, the compass.)</p> <p><i>First Lessons in Chemistry.</i>—Ideas of simple bodies, compound bodies, ordinary metals and salts.</p>

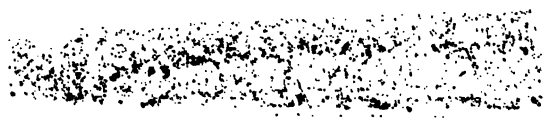
Subjects.	Section Enfantine, 5 to 7 years.	Cours Elémentaire, 7 to 9 years.	
<b>11°. Agri- culture and Horticul- ture.</b>	...      ...      ...	First lessons in the school garden.	
<b>12°. Sing- ing</b>	Simple songs for in- fant schools.  Songs in unison and in two parts learnt exclusively by ear.	Songs learnt at first exclusively by ear.	



Cours Moyen, 9 to 11 years.	Cours Supérieur, 11 to 13 years.
<p>Instruction in connection with reading, object lessons, and excursions, on the principal kinds of soils, manures, agricultural work, and ordinary instruments of husbandry (spade, mattock, plough, &amp;c.</p>	<p>More methodical information on agricultural operations; the implements of husbandry; drainage; natural and artificial manures; seed-sowing, harvesting; domestic animals; farm accounts.</p>
<p>Collective singing in unison and in two part harmony, learnt by ear.</p>	<p><i>Horticulture</i>.—Principal processes of propagating the most useful vegetables grown in the district.</p>
<p>Knowledge of the notes, stave, treble clef; reading; first exercise of intonation.</p>	<p>Tree-cultivation; the most important graftings.</p>
<p>Time:—Semibreve, minum, crotchet, quaver, rests, measures in duple, triple, and quadruple time; reading of notes while beating the time.</p>	<p>Continuation of the middle course.</p>
<p>Simple solfeggio exercises; dictation exercises.</p>	<p>Intonation exercises; the <i>sol</i> and <i>fa</i> clefs; the major diatonic scale; natural intervals; signs of alteration; the principal major and minor scales.</p>
	<p>Time:— Solfeggio exercises; dictation exercises; collective singing of pieces in one or two parts.</p>

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